1973

Values and marital adjustment: a test of homogamy theory

Charles Lee Cole
Iowa State University

74-9107

COLE, Charles Lee, 1944-
VALUES AND MARITAL ADJUSTMENT: A TEST OF HOMOGAMY THEORY.

Iowa State University, Ph.D., 1973
Sociology, family

University Microfilms, A XEROX Company, Ann Arbor, Michigan

Values and marital adjustment:

A test of homogamy theory

by

Charles Lee Cole

A Dissertation Submitted to the

Graduate Faculty in Partial Fulfillment of

The Requirements for the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department: Sociology and Anthropology

Major: Sociology

Approved:

Signature was redacted for privacy.

In Charge of Major Work

Signature was redacted for privacy.

For the Major Department

Signature was redacted for privacy.

For the Graduate College

Iowa State University
Ames, Iowa

1973

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Marriage is one of the most social of all types of interpersonal relationships. Not only do the members of the marital dyad have a stake in the durability of their marriage, but their families of orientation and the society of which they are a part have an investment in their marriage. Society is dependent upon the marriage bonds remaining stable to provide continuity and order. Since the family is one of the primary socialization agents, the society is dependent upon the marital dyad and the family institution in general to teach children the necessary social skills as well as basic values sanctioned by the culture in which they live.

The institution of marriage is very salient in American society. Over 90 percent of the adult members of our society will enter or have entered into marriage at least once. Despite the importance attached to achieving marriage, about one of every four marriages will be terminated by divorce. This relatively high rate of divorce has created much concern both among family scholars and laymen. Some argue that the high incidence of divorce is an indication of family decay. See Zimmerman (1947) for an elaborate discussion of this argument that the family institution is in jeopardy. Others argue that the institution of marriage is and has remained relatively stable and that the incidence of divorce should be examined only in conjunction with the rate of remarriage among those whose marriages have failed. See, e.g., Goode (1956) and Farber (1964) for an extension of this rationale. It is evident that personal satisfaction and ego fulfillment are paramount goals of individuals entering marriage in American society. Bell (1971) asserts that marriage is viewed by most Americans as the most salient

relationship for providing self-fulfillment through self-other validation. It is evident that a problem affecting such a large portion of the population needs attention.

Family researchers have attempted to come up with a prediction model that could be used in assessing the relative chance of couples achieving satisfactory adjustments within marriage. Despite the fact that the area of marital adjustment, satisfaction, happiness, and prediction has been researched for over 40 years, little theory exists to aid the marriage and(or) family counselor or teacher of family relations. Past research on marital adjustment has all too often included data from only one partner, thus giving us an incomplete picture of the total adjustment of both spouses in the marriage.

The purpose of this dissertation is therefore to focus upon the marital adjustment of couples, as well as husbands and wives, by using personal values, a previously neglected variable, to determine if value similarity among married mates is related to the degree of adjustment attained by individual spouses and by the couple as a dyadic pair.

Why would value similarity be a salient factor in marital adjustment? The literature on mate selection and marital adjustment cites consistent evidence that similarity in social background experiences contributes to favorable adjustments within marriage. Homogamy theory attempts to explain the background similarity phenomenon in terms of value consensus. This relationship merits additional probing. The socialization literature lends some credence to this line of thought (see, e.g., Kohn, 1959, 1969). Research on social class in American society has substantiated the notion

of values being reflected in life styles. Turner (1970) points out that values are firmly grounded in the context of social class as well as culture. Since values are learned within the context of socialization, it would seem plausible to expect that people coming from similar social backgrounds would share values in common. The literature on small groups (see, e.g., Newcomb 1953, 1961) cites evidence of value similarity leading to liking. Kerckhoff and Davis (1962) as well as Coombs (1966) have further sustained the hypothesis that value similarity is positively related to partner satisfaction and hence mate selection. It seems logical that, since value similarity has been shown a salient factor in interpersonal attraction and group cohesion in other arenas of research, it should contribute to our ability to predict marital adjustment.

Therefore, the general objectives of this dissertation are to re-evaluate the homogamy theory of marital adjustment and to build separate prediction models for the marital adjustment of husbands, wives and couples by examining the relative contributions that value similarity and selected background similarity factors make.

The following specific objectives will facilitate accomplishing general objectives:

1. To discuss, using a social psychological perspective, the theoretical importance of homogamy.
2. To use theory borrowed from the socialization and small group literature to aid in the development of the general level hypothesis.
3. To delineate and discuss the importance of the major concepts.
4. To review pertinent literature and derive specific hypotheses.

5. To operationalize and discuss the measurement criteria of the concepts central to testing the empirical hypotheses.
6. To determine single variable relationships that exist between selected social background similarity factors, the value similarity factor, and marital adjustment for husbands and wives separately and for the couple as a dyadic unit.
7. To determine the subset of homogamous factors that "best" predicts marital adjustment for husbands, wives and couples separately.
8. And finally, the central concern of this study is to systematically examine the relationship between the value similarity and marital adjustment of individual spouses as well as couples. It was pointed out earlier in this chapter that the value similarity variable often has been implied as an explanation of homogamy although it has never been empirically tested. Therefore, one main contribution of this research is to provide an empirical test of the effects of value similarity, in conjunction with other social background similarity variables, upon marital adjustment. Prior research on homogamy has been restricted primarily to mate selection. This research attempts to extend the homogamy theory to another arena, marriage, by focusing upon the marital adjustment of husbands, wives, and couples.

Chapter II will provide the theoretical framework needed for the realization of these objectives.

CHAPTER II: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter will focus upon the theoretical rationale for studying value similarity of spouses as related to individual spousal as well as the couple's adjustments to the marriage. Otto and Featherman (1972) point out that the literature on homogamous mating is full of inferences about the nature of value similarities as related to spousal adjustments to marriage. Hicks and Platt (1970), in a critical review of the literature on marital happiness, further point out that, although the relationship between homogamy and marital stability has been consistently supported, the homogamous factor is insufficient as an explanatory model as it stands at present because it only accounts for a small portion of the variance. A brief discussion of value similarity will be framed in a social psychological perspective, borrowing from the findings of research on other types of small groups as well as research from the socialization literature. The concepts of values, homogamy, value similarity, and marital adjustment will be discussed and integrated into a social psychological framework that will be used to derive the proposition upon which this research will focus.

The Importance of Theoretically Framed Research

Merton (1968) notes that theory and research are interdependently related and that research is only as good as the theory it is framed in. Likewise, theory is dependent upon verification; therefore, research is needed to support, refute, or modify theory. Sjoberg and Nett (1968), along with a host of other researchers, made a similar appeal for

theoretically grounded research. One of the major limitations of the existing body of knowledge in the area of marital prediction is that in the past, research in the area has all too often been atheoretical. Bowerman (1964: 236) points out that:

> "...the improvement of marital prediction lies not in better research techniques, but depends even more on the development of a body of theory on which prediction research can be more effectively based. The major prediction studies were initiated during a period when there were only the crude beginnings of any theory about marriage and family interaction, and the theory in related areas was of little help."

Fortunately, efforts at using theory within family research have made some headway since the pioneering efforts of Hamilton (1929), Davis (1929), Burgess and Cottrell (1939), and Terman et al. (1938). Actually, most theoretically based work has come within the past decade. See Broderick (1971) and Klein et al. (1969) for more detailed discussions of the history of the role of theory in family research. Briefly, Hill and Hansen (1960) began the efforts to incorporate theory in family research by delineating conceptual frameworks that could usefully guide family researchers, and now the trend in family theorizing is to move beyond treating frameworks as ends in themselves and to attempt to build theory by using a variety of techniques (Broderick, 1971; Goode, 1961; Aldous, 1970; Nye, 1970; Hill, 1971). Possible strategies for developing family theory have been discussed by Broderick (1971) and Burr (1973). Figure 1 summarizes a taxonomy of the theory-building strategies that Burr (1973: 281) suggests might be useful in generating theory.

I. Inductive strategies
   A. Grounded strategy
   B. Codification
   C. Definitional reduction
   D. Propositional reduction

II. Deductive strategies
   A. Borrowing theory
   B. Deduction with one substantive area

III. Retroductive strategy

IV. Factor strategy

V. Theory reworking

Figure 1. A taxonomy of theory-building strategies[a]

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[a]Adapted from Burr (1973: 381). For a discussion of inductive strategies, see, e.g., Glazer and Strauss (1967), Merton (1968), and Zetterberg (1965). For a discussion of deductive strategies, see, e.g., Aldous (1970), Hill (1971), Zetterberg (1965), and Costner and Leik (1964). For a discussion of factor strategy, see e.g., Aldous (1970) and Gibson (1960). For a discussion of the theory reworking strategy, e.g., Burr (1973).

The goal of each strategy listed in Figure 1 is to generate theory that can be used to guide research. The choice of the strategy is largely a function of the state of research and theory within a substantive area as well as the nature of the data that will be used to test hypotheses derived from the theory.

This dissertation will utilize a deductive strategy by borrowing a theoretical rationale from the theory on small groups and socialization. Although the homogamous mating hypothesis has been empirically sustained in numerous studies (see, e.g., Burchinal, 1964; Udry, 1971; and Moss et al., 1971 for a systematic review of this literature), little has been done to build a theoretical rationale for expanding the hypothesis from

social background similarities to the inclusion of concomitant factors. Coombs (1961, 1966) and Kerckhoff and Davis (1962) have extended the homogamous mating hypothesis to relate it to mate selection. No one, however, to this author's knowledge, has attempted to extend the homogamous mating hypothesis by including the values variable with regard to marital adjustment and(or) prediction. Otto and Featherman (1972) do infer the inclusion of value similarity in their test of the homogamy hypothesis as related to marital tensions. Although their findings offer modest support for the hypothesis, they are quick to suggest that additional homogamous factors should be examined to see if more variance can be accounted for, thus increasing our predictive power. Bowerman (1964: 236-237) notes that:

> "One goal of a theory is to provide a network of independent variables that can be brought to bear on the understanding and explanation of any particular dependent variable on which one wishes to focus. Marital prediction theory can be thought of as that segment of the total body of theory that selects as the dependent variable a certain aspect of the marital situation which is felt to be important for the welfare of individuals or society, and includes independent variables which precede the dependent variable in time so that a portion of its variability can be 'accounted for' and anticipated. Prediction research should therefore be viewed as contributing to the development of the total body of marriage and family theory by examination and elaboration of concepts dealing with marriage interaction and adjustment, so they can be more effectively measured, by pointing to the need for the development of those elements of theory concerned with sequences and processes of marital behavior, and by providing a test for certain theoretical propositions."

Bowerman (1964: 237) furthermore notes that:

> "...theory and research focused on other problems provide elements that may be used for marital prediction. For example, the work in socialization, dating and mate selection, personality theory, and marriage interaction contributes to the development of concepts and propositions of use in prediction."

Following the suggestion of Merton (1968) and Bowerman (1964), this dissertation will work on expanding and testing a theory of the middle range. Confining the scope of the theory allows greater specificity; thus, a more direct test can be made in evaluating the theory by using empirical data.

Borrowed Theory

Borrowed theory can best be thought of as a deductive strategy for expanding and building an explanatory rationale in one substantive arena by using theory and research findings from a related substantive area. Aldous (1970: 254) puts it this way:

> "In borrowing from other areas or attempting to link their findings with those in the family, a fruitful strategy may be to see where most research excitement is being generated."

For example, Otto and Featherman (1972) have suggested focusing upon the homogamy theory of mate selection as it relates to partner satisfaction. The homogamy theory of mate selection, although receiving substantial empirical support, is loosely stated. Little effort has been made to rework the explanation by using more abstract notions. To do this effectively, one would need to find the underlying reasons why the data have consistently substantiated the notion that background similarities lead to partner selection and satisfaction. Related literature on small groups and socialization suggests some ideas that might be borrowed to help explain these underlying factors that cause "likes to marry likes" and thereafter achieve more favorable adjustments than do mates coming from dissimilar backgrounds. In this section, we will briefly introduce some relevant ideas from the research on socialization and on cognitive consistency.

Socialization

Dager (1964: 746) stresses the importance of values in the socialization process:

> "...values are internalized in varying degrees of intensity and in some segments of the culture not at all. Where values are not inculcated, faulty socialization occurs; and faulty socialization usually takes place on the interactional, primary-group level."

The crux of Dager's assertion is that values are learned behavior. Furthermore, he contends that values provide a structure for assessing the relative importance of factors influencing the development of the individual's personality and orientation to life. Viewing values as learned behavior from an interactionist perspective, Dager (1964) and Turner (1970) advance the argument that groups that an individual identifies with and is a part of will have the greatest impact upon him. Turner (1970: 181) further points out that:

> "...socialization is the acquisition of an interpretative framework that determines the meanings people assign to experience. Included are values, motives, and sentiments, and the medium through which meaning is transmitted is the symbol. The meanings of objects inhere in the actions people take toward them. The framework of meanings is acquired (the core of socialization) through the process of seeing objects from the standpoint of various kinds of actors in the individual's range of experience, among which the family members are first and most continuous in their significance."

Turner (1970: 56-57) notes that socialization experiences vary by cultural context, whereby persons with cultural dissimilarities in educational experience, socioeconomic background, religion, race, and ethnicity would have less chances of forming lasting bonds than would those from similar sociocultural milieus. Kohn (1959, 1963, 1969) stresses that social-class life styles reflect unique differences in

value orientations with regard to the socialization process. Kohn (1969) does suggest that social class differences in socialization may be a function of value orientation differences. Similar arguments abound throughout the socialization literature. For an exhaustive review, see Zigler and Child (1969), Dager (1964), and Goslin (1969).

It follows that the values that an individual has internalized will be reflected in his personal preferences and choice of life style. The literature on cognitive consistency points out that an individual strives to maintain harmony and internal consistency. For a thorough review of the literature on cognitive consistency, see Zajonc (1968) and Shaw and Costanzo (1970). In this research, we will briefly discuss cognitive consistency theory as it relates to small-group attraction and cohesion in general with specific implications for the marital dyad.

Cognitive consistency theory

Cognitive consistency theory has been used extensively in the social psychological study of attitudes, attitude change, and group formation. Heider (1946) is credited with coining the term cognitive balance and articulating the basic proposition around which cognitive consistency theory has been developed. The proposition (Shaw and Costanzo, 1970: 188) states that:

> "...inconsistent cognitions arouse an unpleasant psychological state which leads to behavior designed to achieve consistency which is psychologically pleasant."

Working with what Heider (1946, 1958) refers to as the p-o-x model, cognitive balance became formalized as a theory; i.e., balance theory. Balance theory has generated a large portion of the propositions governing

small-group behavior. Balance theory is concerned with explaining how the sentiments of a person (p) toward another person (o) and an impersonal object (x) belonging to o are balanced.

Expanding Heider's notion of balance theory by using the A-B-X model, Newcomb (1953, 1959, 1961) reworks the basic notion of cognitive consistency by inserting an assumption that communicative acts function to maintain coorientations. Shaw and Costanzo (1970: 193) note that Newcomb's theory is based on the proposition that:

> "...there are lawful relations among beliefs and attitudes held by a given individual and that certain combinations of beliefs and attitudes are psychologically unstable, resulting in events leading to more stable combinations."

Newcomb's model can be applied at two levels: (1) intrapersonal, concerning the internal cognitive orientation of individuals and (2) interpersonal, focusing upon the group systems that involve relationships between two individuals. The components of his A-B-X model at either level include: A's attitude toward some object (X), A's attraction to B, B's attitude toward X, and B's attraction to A.

A strong case can be made for arguing that the basic model could be applied to any number of types of dyadic groups. Consistent support for the basic propositions of balance theory (see, e.g., the work of Newcomb, 1961, for an integrative review of the research done with small groups that has used the balance theory framework) suggests that this explanatory rationale might be meaningfully applied to the homogamous mating hypothesis as related to not only partner selection, but also adjustment to marriage. Marlowe and Gergen (1969: 626) note that:

> "...a major implication of Heider's theory is that persons who are similar to each other will be more attracted to each other. In this case, similarity should breed attraction. This follows from the joint assumptions (1) that in dyadic interaction the balanced state is one of mutual sentiments between the members and (2) that similarity is a basis of unit formation..."

The literature on interpersonal attraction and group formation provides overwhelming support for the hypothesis that similarities in attitudes, values, and interest as well as demographic characteristics are all positively correlated to interpersonal attraction. (See, e.g., Broxton, 1963; Byrne, 1961; Coombs, 1966; Coombs and Kenkel, 1966; Izard, 1960, 1963; Lindzey and Urdan, 1954; Lundy et al., 1955; Newcomb, 1943; Precker, 1952; Richardson, 1940; Secord and Backman, 1964; Shapiro, 1953; Smith, 1957; Byrne and Blaylock, 1963; Levinger and Breedlove, 1966). These findings are especially significant because the research was conducted by using a variety of methods in a variety of settings.

Marlowe and Gergen (1969) posit an alternative explanation to the balance theory explanation for the similarity and interpersonal attraction hypothesis. Essentially, they argue that persons experience fewer disagreements with those who come from similar backgrounds because persons from similar backgrounds have similar values and standards. The argument is extended to account for how value similarities may operate to facilitate communication because the persons discover similar interests and thus feel gratified to find that their world views are in agreement with others, in effect providing consensual validation of their value system.

Both explanations seem to account for some of the underlying reasons why homogamous mating leads to more favorable adjustments in marriage than does heterogamous mating. Since the two explanations are basically in

agreement that balance is the outcome of such pairing and since the data clearly support that a positive relationship exists between similarity and attraction, both arguments will be claimed as support for the basic proposition that this research will focus upon; namely, that the greater the similarity husbands and wives have before marriage, the more favorable their adjustments will be to marriage. The proposition will be treated formally in a later section of this chapter.

A Brief Assessment of the Homogamy Theory

The literature on homogamous mating is voluminous and thus cannot be exhaustively reviewed in this dissertation. Rather, a brief assessment will be made by ordering some of the major findings that have been consistently verified by replication studies. For a systematic review and assessment of the literature on homogamous mating, see Jacobsohn and Matheny (1962), Burchinal (1964), Leslie (1973), Moss et al. (1971), and Udry (1971).

Beginning with the works of Burgess and Wallin (1943, 1944, 1953), the notion that similarities in social background variables influence the initial selection of marriage partners and also lead to more favorable adjustments in marriage began to receive empirical support. It is almost an established social fact that mate selection in American society follows certain normative patterns with regard to socio-cultural similarities. Lewis (1972) notes that at least five normative patterns have consistently operated in the selection process. The five patterns are: (1) similarity with regard to age of the participants, (2) endogamy with regard to racial and ethnic origin, (3) endogamy with regard to religious

affiliation, (4) endogamy with regard to social class, and (5) similarity with regard to educational experiences.

Burchinal (1964: 646) posits a possible explanation for the homogamous mating hypothesis being related to marital adjustment. Essentially, Burchinal argues that adherence to endogamous norms facilitates selection of mates with value similarities, which leads to more favorable adjustments to marriage. Note that the value similarity explanation is not based upon observed value similarities, but is inferred on the basis of socialization experience similarities, which are reflected in the endogamous norms. More recently, Otto and Featherman (1972) and Bumpass and Sweet (1972) posit a similar explanation for homogamy being related to marital stability. Bumpass and Sweet (1972: 760) note that:

> "The higher probability of success for homogamous marriages is usually attributed to the greater likelihood of value consensus between the spouses on basic life goals and priorities, and the similarity of expectations for marital roles."

It is evident that value similarities are enhanced by homogamous mating, but since no direct test of this hypothesis has been made, we do not know how much value similarities affect marital adjustment directly. It is evident, from Coomb's (1966) work on partner satisfaction among dating couples, that the value consensus explanation could be applied to marital adjustment and satisfaction, thus making an additional contribution to the explainable variance in marital adjustment. Coombs (1966: 166) forwards the notion that:

> "...value consensus fosters mutally rewarding interaction and leads to interpersonal attraction. It is reasoned that the sharing of similar values is, in effect, a validation of one's self which promotes emotional satisfaction and enhances

> communication ease. This is not to deny the possibility that a binding relationship may develop between dissimilar persons, but to suggest that such a relationship is less likely to occur as spontaneously or to persist as permanently. To be sure, there are positive incentives for selecting dissimilar partners, but for most persons these are outweighed by the disadvantages. Although dissimilar persons can provide new information, be unpredictable and therefore exciting, and at times give more objective and accurate appraisal of the self, they also create more uncertainity about one's status and esteem and anxiety over acceptable conduct ...."

Coombs (1966) further suggests that values are the underlying factor accounting for the homogamy explanation of mate selection. Consistent with Burchinal's explanation of homogamy, Coombs (1966) reasons that background similarities facilitate "likes to marry likes" because the premarital environment is restricted largely to a relatively homogeneous group of people that comprise a "field of eligibles" from which most people select marriage partners. Borrowing from Rosen's (1964) work on value transmission, Coombs (1966: 167) suggests that:

> "The value theory would explain the homogamous and homophily tendencies as being caused by the fact that those with similar values are likely to have acquired them in similar social settings. Since values are not innate but rather learned, we would expect persons socialized in similar environments to share many of the same values."

In summarizing the value theory of mate selection, Coombs (1966: 169) contends that:

> "...1) persons with similar backgrounds learn similar values; 2) interaction between such persons is rewarding, since they share a universe of discourse which fosters communication and effective understanding with a minimum of tension and ego threat; and 3) these rewards leave a feeling of satisfaction with the partner and a desire to continue the relationship. Hence, homophily and homogamy tendencies follow."

Borrowing from the social psychological research on interpersonal attraction and cognitive consistency, we find some evidence of support for Coomb's theory. A large portion of this research was done in experimental settings with volunteer samples; this type of research has been useful in assessing problems of the internal validity of the propositions. Few researchers focusing upon the proposition that cognitive similarity fosters group cohesion and satisfaction have assessed the problems of external validity. Attempts have been made at examining the proposition by using natural-setting groups (Newcomb, 1961; Broxton, 1963; Rollins, 1961; Levinger and Breedlove, 1966; and Byrne and Blaylock, 1963). Newcomb's (1961) study focused upon interpersonal attraction and value consensus among a small group of students living together as housemates. Tracing patterns of interpersonal attraction over time, he found that attraction was positively correlated to perceived value consensus. He also found that the strength of the interpersonal attraction was positively correlated to the salience of self-other validation; that is, the more attracted persons A and B were to each other, the more likely they were to perceive the other's values to be consistent with their own. Newcomb's data furthermore indicates that attraction is facilitated by actual value similarity. In another study, Newcomb (1961) did a follow-up of the subjects after marriage who had been in his (Newcomb, 1943) Bennington College study on social environment and attitude change. The follow-up study reports that his subjects sustained by environmental conduciveness were able to maintain attitudes consistent with those that they had held 20 years before and that those subjects who were not sustained by environmental conduciveness exhibited greater changes in attitudes over the

20-year period. In probing the question further, Newcomb (1961) discovered that those who had maintained the greatest attitudinal consistency since their college days had married persons with more similar attitudes and values than had those who experienced less attitudinal consistency since leaving Bennington College. One might infer from the Newcomb (1961) follow-up that attitudinal consistency is a function of balance, whereby those subjects who selected mates with similar attitudes and value orientations were already in balance and those who selected spouses with divergent attitudes were forced to change their attitudes to achieve balance. Although not reported by Newcomb (1961), one wonders if the incidence of divorce was higher for the group that exhibited the greatest amount of attitudinal change. The balance principle suggests that those attitudes and values most salient to the individual would be the most resistent to change. Therefore, if attitudinal changes were required to achieve balance, one might predict less group cohesion and greater vulnerability to disruption because of divergent coorientations on salient values.

Byrne and Blaylock (1963), as well as Levinger and Breedlove (1966), have focused upon the marital dyad with regard to interpersonal attraction and attitudinal similarity of spouses. Both studies support the hypothesis that attraction is related to both actual and perceived similarity between spouses on important attitudes. Levinger and Breedlove (1966) offer modest support for the hypothesis that agreement between spouses on goals is positively correlated to marital satisfaction for both husbands and wives. Stronger support was found for the relationship between perceived similarity and marital satisfaction for the husbands than for the wives.

The relationship between perceived similarity was more positively correlated with marital satisfaction than was actual observed similarity for both husbands and wives. Levinger and Breedlove (1966) explain the findings in terms of Newcomb's cognitive consistency model. They posit that marital satisfaction is significantly related to the degree with which one marital partner overestimates or underestimates the perceived agreement with his spouse. Noting that a number of spouses reporting low satisfaction also reported even less perceived agreement with spouse than was actually observed, they contend, in accordance with Newcomb's model, that the distortions of reality are rewarding to these individuals. In an earlier study, Byrne and Blaylock (1963: 639) suggest that:

> "...assumed similarity should occur only when two individuals feel positively toward one another; partners experiencing marital discord or contemplating divorce should not respond in this way."

Further evidence that the perceptions of spouses influence their level of satisfaction and adjustment is cited by Luckey (1960a, 1960b, 1961, 1964) and Stuckert (1963). The research by Luckey and Stuckert indicates that the wives' perceptions of congruence are more instrumental to favorable adjustments than are those of the husbands. Neither of these studies dealt with values, but rather with self concept and role. It could be argued that the more instrumental the behavioral element, the more important one would expect to find the perceptional element of interaction to be for the achievement of satisfactory dyadic adjustments. It is as yet uncertain whether the same would be true for personal values. It could be argued that Byrne and Blaylock's (1963) research indicates that actual congruence with regard to values is a prerequisite condition for the attainment of

perceptual congruence of values. Therefore, it was reasoned that actual value congruence (similarity) should be focused upon in this dissertation. The basic proposition that this research will test is based upon the preceding discussion of cognitive consistency in interpersonal relations.

Developing the General Level Hypothesis

One of the central propositions in social psychology is that man strives to maintain cognitive consistency. It is evident from the research reviewed earlier in this chapter that Heider's balance theory has stimulated a plethora of research on interpersonal attraction and cohesion. In general, the findings have overwhelmingly supported Heider's thesis that suggests that man will attempt to change one of the two elements in conflict to achieve a balanced state. Homans' (1961: 264) formalized the proposition by stating it in general terms abstract enough to be applied to any number of types of small groups:

> "Congruence facilitates social ease in the interaction among men, and so when they are working together as a team, a congruent relationship between them, by removing the possible source of friction, should encourage their joint efficiency."

Most empirical evidence supporting this proposition has come from small-group researchers focusing upon work groups in industry, friendship groups among college students, and club members within communities. This dissertation will attempt to apply this proposition to the marital dyad. The literature on mate selection and marital adjustment gives credence to this proposition, albeit loosely stated, in the homogamous mating hypothesis. The homogamous mating hypothesis states that persons sharing a similar set of social experiences have a higher probability of

achieving favorable adjustments to marriage because they have more in common and thus less to adjust to in the marriage.

Therefore, the following general level hypothesis is proposed: in a dyadic relationship, the greater the similarity of social experiences and orientation to life, the greater the group cohesion and adjustment to the dyadic relationship. The proposition is graphically illustrated in Figure 2.

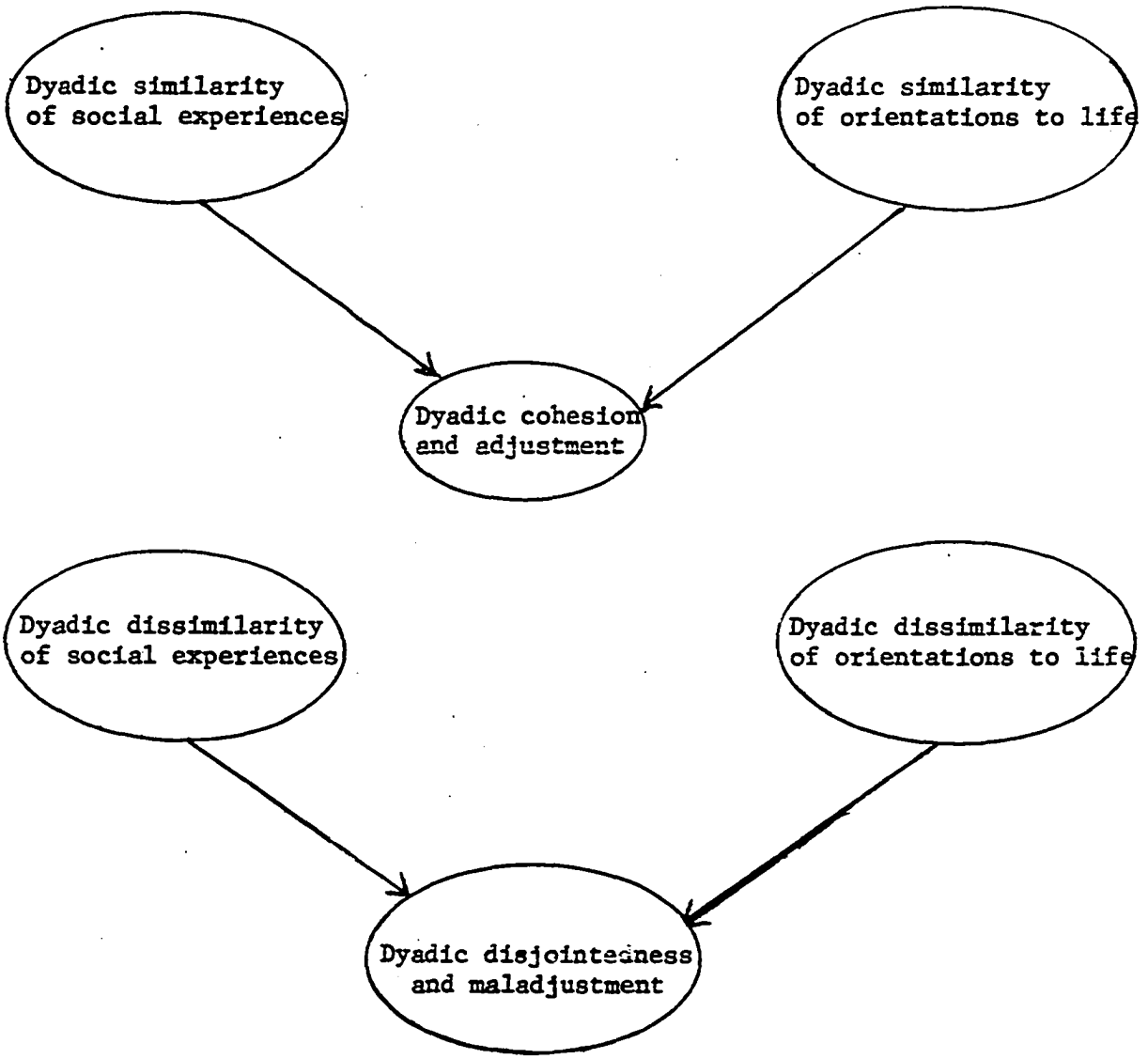

Figure 2. A graphic illustration of the relationship between the major concepts in the general level hypothesis

Before continuing, the concepts central to stating specific hypothesis need to be delineated.

Conceptualizing the Variables

Marital adjustment

The dependent variable in this dissertation is marital adjustment. The concept of marital adjustment has received much attention in the marriage literature. Some argue that the concept is ambiguious and meaningless (see, e.g., Lively, 1969), but others argue that, although the concept is still not well understood, it should nevertheless be used in marriage research (see, e.g., Burgess et al., 1971).

In one of the earlier attempts to conceptualize marital adjustment, Burgess and Cottrell (1939) made five basic assumptions about the nature of a well-adjusted marriage: 1) spouses who were well-adjusted should have essential agreement on matters critical to maintaining their marital unity; 2) sharing of common activities and interest is growth enhancing for the marital relationship; 3) sharing demonstrations of affection and mutual confidences bolsters the marital dyad's ability to cope with routine and mundane problems; 4) couples who are happy and satisfied with the marital relationship have few complaints about their marriage relationships and few doubts about the certainty of the marriage's chances of succeeding; 5) couples who have a feeling of belongingness as a marital unit and experience few irritable interaction sequences are making satisfactory adjustments to the marital relationship.

Burgess' criteria Burgess et al. (1971) list eight criteria for evaluating marital success. One of these criteria, adjustment to the marriage, is central to each of the other seven; thus, it seems logical to consider the seven related criteria as components of marital adjustment The seven components are: 1) permanence; i.e., the couple continues to remain married and living as a conjugal unit; 2) happiness, involves the subjective evaluation of the marriage by the individual spouses; 3) satisfaction, is closely associated with harmony and happiness and involves a subjective evaluation by the individual spouses of the rewards they feel have accrued from the marriage; 4) sexual adjustment, relates to the sexual nature of the marital relationship and involves a subjective appraisal by the individual spouses of the sexual aspects of their marital relationship; 5) integration, refers to the degree to which the couple has achieved a unity of personalities interacting for the mutual satisfaction of both spouses and the accomplishment of goals and objectives jointly; 6) consensus, refers to the degree of agreement and disagreements couples experience with regard to primary issues relating to their marriage; 7) companionship, refers to joint participation in activities, confiding in each other, understanding each other, and demonstration of affection. It is evident that these seven components are not mutually exclusive.

Locke's components Locke and Williamson (1958) and Locke and Wallace (1959) made conceptual refinements that sharpen the meaning of the concept of marital adjustment by empirically verifying the existence of three analytically distinct dimensions. They noted that the concept of marital adjustment is comprised of three major dimensions: 1) conflict

resolution and management; 2) satisfaction and happiness; 3) companionship and consensus. This dissertation will follow the Locke and Williamson (1958) and Locke and Wallace (1959) conceptual schema and treat marital adjustment as a multidimensional concept.

A dissenting viewpoint Needless to say, the conceptual models suggested by Burgess and Locke have been challenged by recent writers in the area of marital adjustment. Perhaps Laws (1971) and Edmonds et al. (1972) make the most serious charges, raising questions about the assumptions underlying the conceptual meanings attached to marital adjustment. In defense of Burgess et al. and Locke, the principal writers against whom these charges are levied, a few clarifying comments seem appropriate. Laws (1971) charges that the concept of marital adjustment is value-laden and actually refers to the wife's adjustment to the marriage. Perhaps this is a valid criticism, in that most early work on marital adjustment was done using primarily wives and not including the husbands. The other criticisms, however, seem less well founded and thus merit some consideration. One of the most striking charges that Laws (1971) raises is that Burgess' conception of marriage as a companionship model negates the possibility of making individual identities, especially for the wife. Putting the argument in perspective, we see that Burgess is making the same assumption about group cohesion as do many of the small-group theorists who are not dealing with married couples. Thus, from a logical vantage point, if we assume the small-group theory about group cohesion is valid, it follows that Burgess' assumptions about cohesion are theoretically well anchored.

Perhaps a more crucial issue that Laws (1971), Edmonds (1967), and Edmonds et al. (1972) raise is that of the contamination of the measures of the concept of marital adjustment by social desirability and conventionality. Edmonds et al. (1972) contend that the most frequently used empirical measures of marital adjustment are based upon the earlier works of Burgess and Cottrell (1939), Burgess and Wallin (1953), Locke (1951), and Locke and Wallace (1959). One might be concerned about social desirability and acquiescent response set contaminating the measures and thus negating the measurement of the concept. Hawkins' (1966) data, however, do not support their charges of social desirability; he found a slight positive correlation statistically nonsignificant between the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment scale and the Crowne-Marlow Social Desirability scale, concluding that the scale measuring marital adjustment shows a minimal amount of contamination due to social desirability. With regard to the question of conventionality, one best recalls Burgess' early thoughts about marital adjustment and the institution of marriage. Burgess et al. (1971) make no claims that the institution of marriage is anything but conventional. Indeed, Burgess contends that conventionality should enhance marital adjustment, therefore, Edmonds et al. (1972) findings are not surprising and, in fact, tend to substantiate Burgess' case. One, however, would doubt the measurement instrument if conventionality were all that marital adjustment scales are tapping; therefore, a test for conventionality will be included and discussed in Chapter 3.

The conventionality issue will not be laid to rest by this research or any other single piece of research, but rather as a result of cumulative knowledge acquired through several independent investigations. For this dissertation, no assumptions are claimed that the marital adjustment concept as measured by the Locke-Wallace (1959) scale is independent of any contamination from conventionality.

The need for a collective indicant Before going on to discuss the conceptual meanings of the independent variables, we need to clarify further some of the conceptual properties of marital adjustment that have not been treated formally in the literature. First, we need to point out that although the concept of marital adjustment has group properties, it has almost exclusively been treated as an individual property. Bernard (1964: 678) suggests three uses of the concept of adjustment: (1) individual adjustments made by each partner; (2) social adjustment made by the married pair as a social system in response to other social systems; and (3) marital adjustment made by one or both partners adjusting to each other in the context of the marital system in which they operate (which the author of this dissertation will refer to as relational).

Exhaustive reviews of the literature failed to reveal much evidence of researchers dealing with marital adjustment beyond the individual-perceptional level. There are good reasons why past research has not dealt at the social and(or) relational levels systematically. First, treating marital adjustment as a group property would require data from both spouses. Second, it would necessitate constructing a collective indicant of marital adjustment, reflecting couple's adjustment to the marriage. Combing the literature, one finds only a few studies that include couples

in their investigation of marital adjustment. Summarized in Table 1, we see that the husband's and wife's marital adjustment scores do not correlate perfectly, therefore not reflecting unity and not legitimizing using only one spouse as a representative of the marriage.

Examining the correlations between husband and wife reported in Table 1 sensitizes the researcher to a need for developing a collective indicant of the couple's adjustment to the marriage. This would provide a means of evaluating the marriage relationship in terms of the group properties as well as the individual properties. The relational level of adjustment can be tapped by the data obtained from both spouses, as was done by the studies reported in Table 1. In this dissertation, an attempt will be made, albeit exploratory, to examine the group property of marital adjustment by devising a collective indicant of adjustment that uses both spouses' perceptions of marital adjustment. Thus, in this dissertation we will examine three models: 1) the effects of homogamous factors upon the husband's adjustment; 2) the effects of homogamous factors upon the wife's adjustment; and 3) the effects of homogamous factors upon the couple's marital adjustment.

It is evident that there is a lack of consensus among researchers with regard to the conceptual meaning attached to the concept of marital adjustment. This is further illustrated by the reluctance to define marital adjustment in family texts. Burr (1973), e.g., notes that marital adjustment is a confusing concept with a highly complex meaning and then leaves his discussion of the concept without offering a nominal definition. Two of the better definitions of the concept of marital adjustment found in the literature will be noted and a synthesis definition that will be used in this research will be proposed.

Viewing the adjustment of spouses to a marriage as one of the most salient criteria for evaluating marital success, Burgess et al. (1971: 321) define marital adjustment as:

Table 1. Selected studies reporting data on both spouses' marital adjustment scores with the correlation coefficient for husband-wife marital adjustment scores

Study	Sample Size (couples)	Scale used to measure marital adjustment	Number of items used	Correlation
Terman et al. (1938)	792	Terman Index of Marital Happiness	233	.59
Terman and Oden (1947)	567	Terman Index of Marital Happiness and selected additional items	239	.52
Burgess and Wallin (1944)	1,000	Burgess-Wallin Marital Success Schedule	246	.41
Locke (1951)	200 happily married 201 divorced	Locke Marital Adjustment Test	55	.36
Dean (1966)	119	Nye-McDougal Marital Adjustment Scale	10	.59
Price (1969)	200	Locke-Williams Marital Adjustment Test	20	.64
Spanier (1972)	108	Locke-Wallace Short Form	15	.59
Pitsiou (1973)	140	Nye-McDougal Marital Adjustment Scale	10	.59
Otto and Featherman (1972)	216	Otto and Featherman Marital Tensions Scale	9	.48

> "...a union in which the husband and wife are in agreement on chief issues of marriage, such as handling finances and dealing with inlaws; in which they have come to an adjustment on interests, objectives, and values; in which they are in harmony on demonstration of affection and sharing confidences; and in which they have few complaints about their marriage."

Bowerman (1964: 239) defines the concept of marital adjustment as that:

> "...behavior which serves to reduce differences between marital partners with respect to a particular marital situation, or interaction sequence ...."

He goes on to note that marital interaction involves an infinite number of unique sequences in which one or both partners are faced with situations requiring them to modify their behavior to fit the occasion. Contending that adjustment situations can be classified in areas by clustering all similar situations together, Bowerman suggests that one can predict the adjustment outcome in any number of related areas by observing an adjustment situation representative of the area. He (1964: 239) defines an adjustment area as:

> "...those interaction sequences toward which adjustments of the individual are essentially similar, and which differ from adjustments made in other areas."

Synthesizing, from our discussion of marital adjustment, we can define marital adjustment as: that process that serves to 1) reduce troublesome differences; 2) reduce interspousal and personal tensions; 3) increase satisfaction (happiness); 4) enhance dyadic cohesion and consensus on matters important to marital functioning.

Homogamy

The independent variable in this dissertation is homogamy. The concept of homogamy has been applied fruitfully to both mate selection

and marital adjustment. Despite the long standing in the family literature of this concept, it has not been analytically treated or conceptually sharpened to any state beyond a working definition. Burchinal (1964) notes that the concept of homogamy has frequently been used interchangeably with the two concepts, assortative mating and endogamy. He notes that homogamy and assortative mating are empirically based concepts, but that endogamy has more frequently been treated in a normative sense with reference to mate-selection norms that prescribe that selection of mates must be made from within defined boundaries. Burchinal (1964) further contends that we need a more parsimonious categorization of the concepts, although he fails to provide one in his discussion of the three related concepts.

One could argue, on the basis of Burchinal's inferences about the nature of the relationship between endogamy and homogamy as well as assortative mating, that endogamy is a more general concept operating at a higher level of abstraction and that homogamy and assortative mating are special cases of the more general concept. This would provide some sharpening, but the issue of whether to use homogamy or assortative mating would still remain. With the synonomous concepts operating at the lower level of abstraction, one has two possibilities, either to decide on one concept, (preferably on the basis of some rationale) or to attempt to distinguish the concepts analytically. It could logically be argued that the concept of homogamy has been used the most widely in

the literature and, therefore, that we should keep the concept of homogamy and throw out the concept of assortative mating. Another alternative that will offer some conceptual clarity, however, would be to take the latter possibility and make an analytical distinction between the two concepts. The author of this dissertation prefers the latter alternative.

It is evident that the concept of homogamy clearly applies to mate selection, but it also applies to mate characteristics of similarity after marriage. The concept of assortative mating, on the other hand, is more clearly restricted to the mate selection process. Therefore, the analytical distinction is that assortative mating is a special case of homogamy and thus operating at a lower level of abstraction. Figure 3 illustrates graphically the theoretical relationship between the three concepts.

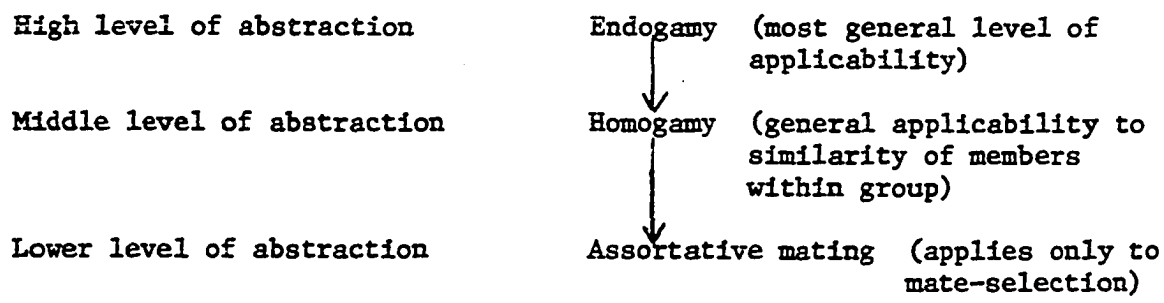

Figure 3. The analytical distinction between endogamy, homogamy, and assortative mating on a theoretical continuum

Burchinal (1964: 646) notes that:

> "...homogamy generally is the only term used in describing similarity in husband-wife characteristics whether these characteristics reflect physical, psychological or group membership variables."

Reworking Burchinal's conceptualization of homogamy, we find three analytically distinguishable properties operating: 1) similar physical characteristics; 2) similar psychological elements; and 3) similar social dimensions (referred to by Burchinal as group membership variables).

For physical characteristics, we have evidence that factors such as similarity in height, weight, hair color, skin pigmentation, etc., have been related to mate choice. For a review of research on physical dimensions of homogamy, see, e.g., Boalt (1965) and Nimkoff (1947). Little evidence, however, exists documenting the relationship between physical similarity and marital adjustment. More data is found supporting the notion that psychological similarity is related to both mate selection and marital adjustment.

Psychological similarity would include such things as similarity of interpersonal needs, temperament, etc. (Snyder, 1964; Stagner, 1948; Blazer, 1963; Richardson, 1939; Murstein, 1961, 1967, 1970; Kerckhoff and Bean, 1967; Kerckhoff and Davis, 1962; Winch, 1958, 1967).

Perhaps the greatest amount of data supporting the homogamous mating hypothesis with regard to both mate selection and marital adjustment is on the social dimension of homogamy. Several studies have indicated that similarity in age, religion, education, social status, family background, racial and ethnic origin, values, and attitudes are related to mate selection and marital adjustment. (Kerckhoff and Davis, 1962; Kerckhoff, 1972; Kerckhoff and Bean, 1970; Kalish and Johnson, 1972; Coombs, 1961, 1962, 1966; Selfors et al., 1962; Burgess and Wallin, 1944; 1953; Hollingshead, 1950a, 1950b; Bossard and Letts, 1956; Burchinal, 1957, 1961, 1964; Burchinal and Chancellor, 1962, 1963; Snyder, 1964; Blazer, 1963;

Burgess and Cottrell, 1939; Chancellor and Monahan, 1955; Freeman, 1955; Frumkin, 1955; Landis, 1949, 1960; Locke, 1951; Roth and Peck, 1951; Samenfink, 1958; Otto and Featherman, 1972; Bumpass and Sweet, 1972; Byrne and Blaylock, 1963; Levinger and Breedlove, 1966; Kelly 1955; Keeley, 1955; Grigg and Nimkoff, 1958).

Udry (1971) points out in his evaluation of the homogamy literature that the social factors (social dimension, as labeled by the author of this dissertation) are the only elements in the homogamous mating principle that have been supported consistently by empirical evidence. Therefore, it is logical that research should focus upon the social dimension since it bears the greatest fruit for explaining both mate selection and marital adjustment. With this in mind, the focus of this dissertation will be restricted to the social dimension of homogamy.

It is evident that much of the literature claiming that social homogamy is related to mate selection and marital adjustment because of value similarity has not focused upon the value similarity variable but rather inferred that value similarity was reflected by social background similarities, such as education and religion. See Bumpass and Sweet (1972) and Otto and Featherman (1972) for an elaboration of this point. The relationship between the value similarity variable and the homogamy theory needs to be explored. Therefore, this dissertation will focus upon marital adjustment by using the value similarity variable and some theoretically more meaningful social background similarity variables. Before continuing and developing specific hypotheses that will serve as a basis for testing the general level hypothesis, we need to discuss the conceptual meanings attached to values.

Values

Values are central to social psychological explanations of human behavior. Conceptually, values have been treated in several ways. We will outline a few of the more systematic conceptualizations and discuss the meaning that the concept values has taken on in social psychological research. Note that values are learned through the repertoire of experiences we share socially. Values imply that salience or importance is placed upon some objects, which are preferred over less salient objects. Hollander (1967) notes that values serve to organize and cluster less general beliefs and attitudes. In explaining the difference between attitudes and values Hollander posits a schematic diagram of the relationship between specific attitudes and core attitudes, which he calls values. Borrowing Hollander's (1967: 118) diagram, we see that an individual's attitudes overlap and cluster in more than one value.

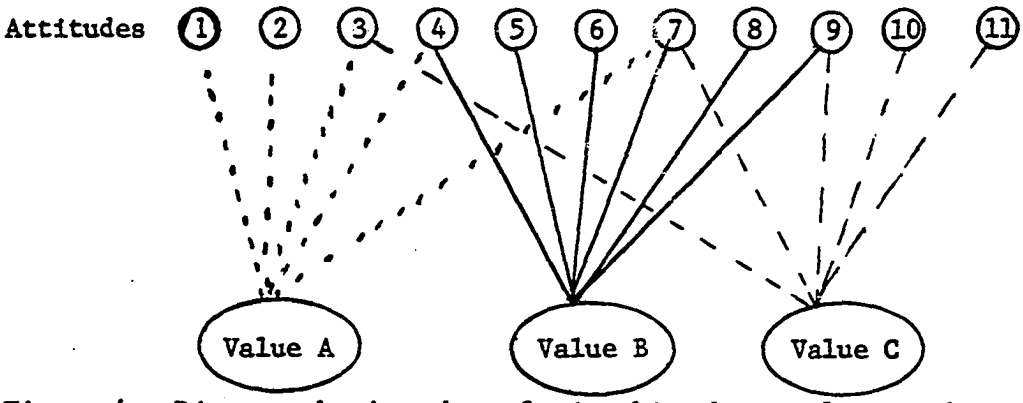

Figure 4. Diagram showing the relationship three values with varying clusters of attitudes (Hollander, 1967)

Hollander (1967: 118) notes that each value has an infinite number of specific attitudes organized around it. In the schematic diagram

(Figure 4), a sampling of attitudes are shown to represent how values organize the more specific beliefs, attitudes, feelings, and opinions into clusters.

Opinions are the least stable and are frequently changed as new information is brought to bear. A more solidified opinion becomes an attitude, still related to a specific aspect of the phenomena and relatively stable, but subject to change. A belief is a strong feeling operating at a higher level of abstraction than that of an attitude. Beliefs are relatively stable and more difficult to change than are attitudes. Beliefs are slightly less generalized feelings than are values and thus operate at a lower level of abstraction. The analytical distinction among values, beliefs, attitudes, feelings, and opinions can be made in terms of the relative stability of the manifestation and the level of generality at which the manifestation is applicable. In Figure 5, the analytical distinction is visually depicted on a theoretical continuum.

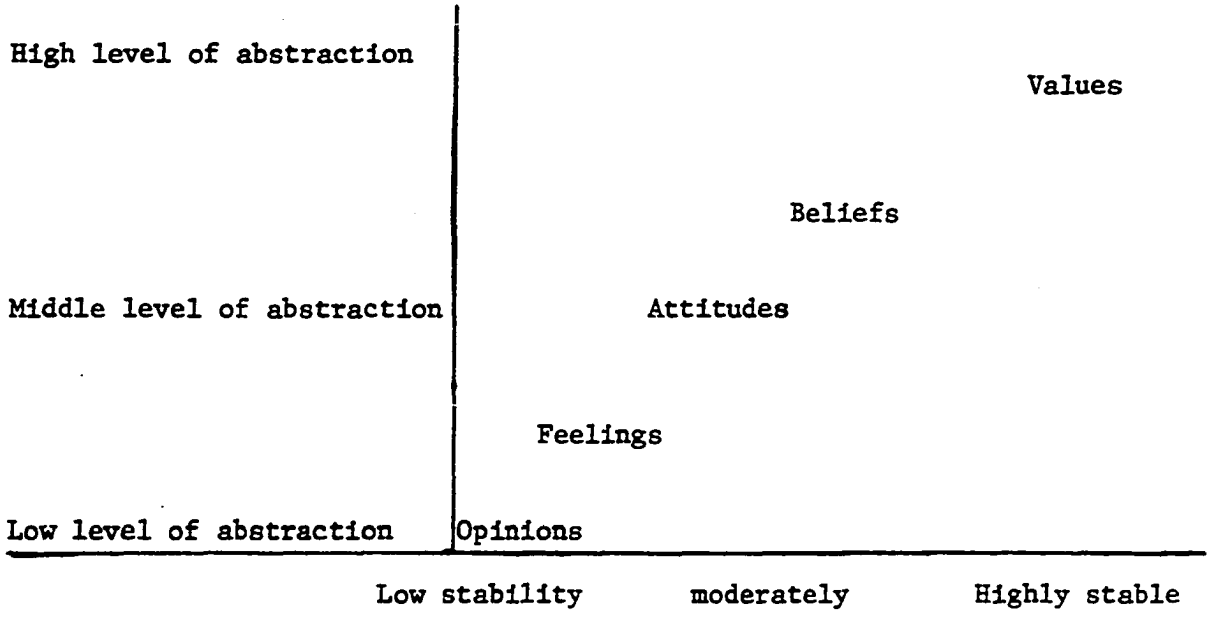

Figure 5. Visual depiction of the theoretical relationship among values, beliefs, attitudes, feelings and opinions on a continuum, showing the level of abstraction at which each operates

As Figure 5 illustrates, the relationship between the level of abstraction at which the manifestation operates is directly related to the level of stability of the manifestation, with values operating at the highest level of abstraction and demonstrating the greatest resistence to change and opinions operating at the lowest level of abstraction, highly susceptible to influence, and therefore vulnerable to change.

Having made an analytical distinction among values, beliefs, attitudes, feelings, and opinions, we are now ready to discuss the components and dimensions of values. Most work on conceptualizing values is based upon Spranger's (1928) classification system of evaluative attitudes. According to Spranger (1928), men govern themselves by six types of evaluative attitudes, (when using Spranger's classification nomenclature evaluative attitudes are synonymous with values): 1) the theoretical, which places importance on the discovery of truth; 2) the economic, which considers the utilitarian or material usefulness of objects; 3) the aesthetic, which places primary importance on establishing and maintaining harmony; 4) the social, which considers the love of people important; 5) the political, which considers power important; and 6) the religious, which considers the cosmos as a whole as important. The two major attempts to conceptualize values by using Spranger's categorization are Morris (1959) and Allport et al. (1960). Introducing the concept of "preferential behavior" in their attempts to set up a hypothesized domain of values, both Morris (1959) and Allport et al. (1960) developed highly abstract multi-dimensional measures of the concept values. Offering similar definitions of the concept of values, both Morris and Allport include the notion of "what is desired or preferred." Morris (1959: 211) notes that:

> "An organism may be said to exhibit positive preferential behavior to an object or situation if it acts so as to maintain the presence of this object or situation, or to construct this object or situation if it is not present. It exhibits negative preferential behavior if it seeks to move away from this object or situation or to destroy or prevent the occurrence of this object or situation. Since life process depends on the selection or rejection of certain objects or situations, preferential behavior (positive or negative) is a basic phenomenon of life."

Wilson and Nye (1966: 2) note that Morris envisioned the possibility of developing a verified theory of preferential behavior where, in effect, it would be possible to not only describe what organism prefers what things under what conditions, but to attempt to develop underlying laws, through observation and experimentation, to explain such behavior. Accordingly, preferential behavior, as treated by Morris, would encompass the value field.

In this connection, Morris (1959) distinguished between social and individual values. Social values are shared values; that is, groups of individuals exhibiting certain preferential behavior in common. Individual values are exemplified in the preferential behavior of single individuals toward, for example, way of life, art, objects, ideas, books, and specific persons. Morris maintained that both social and individual values involve preferential behavior and that both are amenable to scientific investigation.

In further explaining the notion of "value field," Morris identified three common usages of the term that have reference to preferential behavior.

Type one in Morris' typology are operative values. Morris notes that an operative value is directly observable. Morris (1959: 10) defined an object as:

> "...whatever can be preferred to something else, physical things, persons, colors, emotions, can all be objects in this sense."

This all-encompassing use of "object" means that operative values could refer to such things as selection among symbolic patterns (e.g., combinations of words) or to some physical object (e.g., food or paintings, etc). In this sense, operative values (what is preferred) can be directly inferred from observable selection patterns. Dodd (1951: 645-653) uses the term operative values in a similar manner and defines value operationally as "...anything desired or chosen by someone." Kluckhohn (1951: 388-433) raises a number of criticisms with the use of behavioral indicants of personal values. As Barton (1969: 323) points out, Kluckhohn's position is that the value-standard of an individual is abstract and not directly comparable to concrete behavioral manifestations. Similarly, Wilson and Nye (1966: 1-12) point out that the use of behavioral indicants alone may not reflect value preference, but rather merely the expression of behavior within the limits of the social context observed. It seems fairly safe to suggest that Morris (1959: 10) may recognize this limitation, since he notes that manifest preferences are restricted to the field of available alternatives observable.

Morris' second major type is what he refers to as conceived values. Morris (1959: 10-11) maintained that a conceived value is restricted to instances involving some object or situation signified as liked or disliked. As Wilson and Nye (1966: 3) point out, the "...conceived values involve signs whereas operative values do not." The crucial point of distinction is that conceived values always involve a choice of signs; that is, approval or rejection of a symbolic field. This point is made clearer by Catton. In Catton's (1959: 312) terms, a conceived value is defined as:

> "... a conception of the desirable which is implied by a set of preferential responses to symbolic desiderata."

Kluckhohn (1951: 395) states that:

> "...a value is a conception, explicit or implicit, distinctive of an individual or characteristic of a group, of the desirable which influences the selection from available modes, means, and ends of sections."

Williams (1959: 374) implicitly treats values in a similar fashion by defining values as:

> "...any aspect of a situation, event, or object that is invested with a preferential interest as being 'good', 'bad', 'desirable' and the like."

Morris' third type of value is what he labels object values. An object values as used by Morris (1959: 11-12) refers to a relatively objective

> "...property of an object considered in relation to its ability to reinforce preferential behavior directed toward it by some organism."

Wilson and Nye (1966: 3-4) point out that the main emphasis in Morris' treatment of object values is that certain objects are defined on the basis of the properties they possess that have the capacity to support either positive or negative preferential behavior. Morris' conception of the object value is similar to Nye's (1967: 241-248) notion of instrumental value. Nye (1967: 241-248) defines an instrumental value as:

> "...the desirability which becomes attached to an object, experience, or event because that property has become identified as necessary or effective in producing an outcome desired by the individual or the society."

Another related concept used by Barton (1969: 323-326) is the term obligatory values. Barton notes that obligatory values probably arise from

the interdependency of living in groups within a society. It is Barton's contention that these obligatory values serve as a means to an end and thus take on an instrumental quality.

In contrast to the instrumental or obligatory type of values is the notion of an object being valued for its intrinsic worth. Nye (1967: 241-248) notes that the intrinsic value is difficult to identify and distinguish from some gradation of an instrumental value. Both Nye (1967) and Barton (1969: 325) do, however, make a point that the intrinsic, or personal preference of an object for its own worth, is the result of values that the individual has internalized and given special meaning devoid of other referents. A number of questions are immediately raised as to whether one can measure values of intrinsic worth. To accommodate this critical issue, we can only afford a working definition that will not attempt to distinguish instrumental and intrinsic values. Rather, the definition we offer will have to encompass both elements. Therefore, we will employ Nye's (1967) nominal definition, which states that values are:

> "...a high level of abstraction which encompasses a whole category of objects, feelings, and/or experiences."

In terms of operationalizing the concept of values, we will make the assumption that intrinsic values are learned from instrumental experiences. Therefore, the term values can be placed on a continuum from the meeting of obligations in an instrumental sense to the ultimate satisfaction intrinsic in the value itself. (For an exhaustive review of the concept of values and how it has been treated in social psychology and sociology, see, e.g., Barton, 1969;

Warland, 1966; Robinson and Shaver, 1969 .) For purposes of this dissertation we will follow Morris' (1959) conceptualization of values.

In summary, values are defined as that which is considered desirable or preferable. Based upon Morris's (1959) classification schema, values can be analytically distinguished by types: 1) operative, 2) conceived, and 3) object. For this dissertation, values will be conceptualized in terms of Morris's type two, conceived values, whereby an individual makes a preferential judgement in terms of liking or disliking the object, experience, and(or) event.

Morris (1959) notes that values can be distinguished in terms of whether they are social (i.e., shared by others) or individual (i.e., uniquely held without validation from others). For this dissertation, we will focus upon social values since we are interested in the value similarity aspect of values with regard to conjugal-pairs. It could be argued that values not shared by both spouses in a conjugal-pair are individual preferences. This would make an interesting topic for future inquiry, but is beyond the scope of this dissertation.

Now that we have discussed the conceptual meanings of the major concepts, we are ready to continue our discussion of the general level hypothesis and to develop specific hypotheses that can be subjected to empirical verification.

Recalling our earlier discussion of the general hypothesis, the unit of analysis is the marital dyad. The general level hypothesis states that, in a dyadic relationship, the greater the similarity of social experiences and orientation to life, the greater the group cohesion

and adjustment to the dyadic relationship. Specifying the unit of analysis as the marital dyad, the hypothesis can be restated at a lower level of abstraction: in a marital relationship, the greater the similarity of social experiences and orientation to life, the greater the adjustment to the marriage. Note that the concept of group cohesion was deleted in the more specific statement of the hypothesis. The rationale for the deletion is based upon Burgess and Wallin's (1953) conceptualization of marital adjustment, which subsumes cohesion under the general rubric of integration, a component of marital adjustment.

The general hypothesis can be broken down into two more specific hypotheses by making the focus of each more specific with regard to the independent variable.

SGH 1. In the marital dyad, the greater the similarity of social experiences, the greater the adjustment to the marriage.

SGH 2. In the marital dyad, the greater the similarity of orientations to life, the greater the adjustment to marriage.

Subconcepts

To examine the relationship among the general concepts of similarity of social experiences, orientations to life, and dyadic adjustment, subconcepts at a lower level will be explicated. After stating each general subconcept, one or more specific subconcepts operating at a still lower level of abstraction will be introduced. The specific subconcepts will be used to develop specific hypotheses. Drawing from the literature on homogamous mating, several subconcepts can be introduced to represent the general concepts of similarity of social experiences and orientations

to life. Table 2 illustrates the relationship of selected specific subconcepts that have the greatest empirical support and theoretical relevance for the proposition to the general level concepts.

Specific hypotheses

By using the specific concepts relating to similarity of social experiences and orientations to life as the independent variables and the specific concepts relating to marital adjustment as the dependent variables, fifteen specific hypotheses can be developed and subjected to empirical verification, thus affording us indirect testing of the more general hypothesis.

From literature on marital adjustment, we have evidence that husbands and wives do not perceive marriage in exactly the same manner. Therefore, we will propose separate specific hypotheses for husbands and wives as well as for the couple as a dyadic unit. To the author's knowledge, this has never been reported in the marital adjustment literature. Therefore, we are working in an exploratory framework, with three dependent variables: 1) husband's marital adjustment, 2) wife's marital adjustment, and 3) couple's marital adjustment.

According to Udry (1971) and Bumpass and Sweet (1972), the homogamous mating hypothesis has been empirically supported for some background similarity factors, but for other background similarity factors, the evidence is less clearly established. We will use only those background similarity factors with well-established theoretical meanings and empirical

Table 2. Conceptual linkages of specific subconcepts to general level concepts by the level of abstraction and type of concept

Level of abstraction	Type of concept	Type of variable: Independent		Type of variable: Dependent
High general	Concept	Similarity		Adjustment
Middle general	Subconcept	Similarity of: 1. Social experiences	2. Orientation to life	Marital Adjustment
Low general	Specific subconcept	Similarity of: 1a. Age	2a. Values	1. Husband's Marital Adjustment
		1b. Education		2. Wife's Marital Adjustment
		1c. Religion		
		1d. Parent's Marriage		3. Couple's Marital Adjustment

support. The two background variables that have received the greatest empirical verification with regard to the homogamous mating hypothesis of marital adjustment are: religious similarity and educational similarity. Two other variables that have received modest support are: age similarity and family background similarity. Other similarity factors such as fathers' occupational similarity, parents' educational similarity, racial and ethnic similarity, social status similarity, marital status similarity, etc., also have been cited as positively relating to marital adjustment by one or more studies, but on the whole they have received much weaker support, with each having some evidence of contradictory findings (see, e.g., Burgess and Cottrell, 1939; Terman et al., 1938; Burgess and Wallin, 1944, 1953; Hollingshead, 1950a, 1950b; Roth and Peck, 1951; Risdon, 1954; Marcson, 1953; Cheng and Yamamura, 1957; Biesanz and Smith, 1951; Barnett, 1963; Burma, 1952, 1963; Golden, 1953; Freeman, 1955; Leslie and Richardson, 1956; Hunt, 1940; Otto and Featherman, 1972; Bumpass and Sweet, 1972).

A word of explanation needs to be given about those similarity factors that have not been consistently supported in the literature. It is possible, as Udry (1971) suggests that certain endogonous norms, such as racial and ethnic similarity, have served to create barriers within the mate selection process that preclude the probability of this type of heterogamy. Hollingshead (1950a) offers a similar interpretation, noting that racial barriers are the strongest endogomous forces operating to restrict and define the field of eligibles from which one is to choice a marital partner. Some of the other similarity variables, such as

similarity of social status, fathers' occupations and parents' educational levels were at one time thought to be theoretically meaningful discriminators of marital adjustment, but the empirical support in the last 20 years has been far from conclusive (see, e.g., Leslie and Richardson, 1956; Udry, 1971; Bumpass and Sweet, 1972), thus negating their theoretical importance in testing the homogamous mating hypothesis of marital adjustment.

Each of the four background similarity variables that has received at least modest support consistently will be discussed separately because of their importance in developing specific hypotheses.

Religious similarity Several researchers have found religious similarity to be positively related to marital stability (see, e.g., Burchinal and Chancellor, 1963; Bossard and Boll, 1957; Bossard and Letts, 1956; Thomas, 1951; Gordon, 1964; Hollingshead, 1950a, 1950b; Glick, 1960; Bumpass and Sweet, 1972). Support also has been cited for similarity of religion and marital adjustment (Blood and Wolfe, 1960; Slotkin, 1942; Landis 1960; Locke, 1951; Burgess and Wallin, 1944, 1953; Burchinal, 1957; Burgess and Cottrell, 1939; Selfors et al., 1962; Spanier, 1971; Pitsiou, 1971; Otto and Featherman, 1972).

Religious similarity is theoretically meaningful because of the salience that religion plays in our culture. Couples with similar religious beliefs have another binding force to solidify their relationship. The church also has traditionally supported the institution of marriage and therefore serves as a normative reference group that encourages marital adjustment. Couples with different religious beliefs, on the other hand, have an added source of conflict and, therefore, additional

adjustments to make that couples with similar religious backgrounds and experiences do not have to cope with in their adjustment to marriage.

Therefore, the following specific hypotheses are offered about religious similarity and marital adjustment:

SH 1. Spouse's religious similarity is positively associated with husband's marital adjustment.

SH 2. Spouse's religious similarity is positively associated with wife's marital adjustment.

SH 3. Spouses' religious similarity is positively associated with couple's marital adjustment.

Educational similarity Receiving the second strongest support in the literature on homogamous mating and marital adjustment, similarity of educational experiences is thought to have a significant influence on marital adjustment. Researchers have found that the educational similarity variable is more strongly related to marital adjustment than it is to marital stability (see, e.g., Udry, 1971). Consistent support for the educational similarity factor in marital adjustment has been claimed in a number of studies, (Burgess and Wallin, 1944, 1953; Blood and Wolfe, 1960; Burgess and Cottrell, 1939; Terman et al., 1938; Glick, 1960; Goode, 1956; Bernard, 1966a, 1966b; Selfors et al., 1962; Komarovsky, 1964; Levinger, 1965; Renne, 1970; Locke, 1951; Otto and Featherman, 1972; and Bumpass and Sweet, 1972).

Theoretically, educational similarity could be seen as meaningful in the light of the stratification system that reflects differentials in prestige, mobility, economic and social resources, etc. Education can be viewed as a mode of socialization whereby an individual acquires certain skills and is encouraged to develop expectations, etc. Couples with

similar levels of education, therefore, should have developed similar social skills and internalized similar expectations.

Education also can be viewed as one means whereby individuals gain self understanding. Thus, couples with similar levels of educational attainment should have similar levels of self-understanding. Couples with divergent levels of educational experiences are more likely to have difficulty understanding each other's needs. Therefore, we would expect more difficulties to arise between marital partners who have not shared similar educational experiences and thus have more to adjust to in marriage than do marital partners who have had similar educational experiences.

Therefore, the following specific hypotheses are offered about the relationship between educational similarity and marital adjustment.

SH 4. Spouse's educational similarity is positively associated with husband's marital adjustment.

SH 5. Spouse's educational similarity is positively associated with wife's marital adjustment.

SH 6. Spouses' educational similarity is positively associated with couple's marital adjustment.

Age similarity Although the data on similarity of age has not offered strong support for the hypothesis that similarity of age is conclusively related to marital success (see, e.g., Udry, 1971, for a discussion of this point), it has received fairly consistent support with regard to marital adjustment (see, e.g., Burgess and Cottrell, 1939; Burgess and Wallin, 1944; King, 1952; Blood and Wolfe, 1960; Locke, 1951; Spanier, 1971; Bumpass and Sweet, 1972).

Udry (1971) suggests that couples who are closer to the same age have a greater probability of sharing more things in common and, thus,

that their marriages would involve more companionship than would those marriages where the couple's age differences were greater than a few years. Blood and Wolfe (1960) furthermore suggest that differences in age can lead to an imbalance in the power structure within the family, with the older partner exercising the greatest amount of power. This imbalance in the internal power structure within a family could be one reason why there is usually a greater difference in the interaction patterns of spouses whose ages differ more than five years. This differentiation of interaction patterns is interpreted by Blood and Wolfe as a factor that contributes to less-companionship-oriented marriages.

Therefore, the following specific hypotheses are proposed about the relationship between similarity of ages and marital adjustment.

SH 7. Similarity of age is positively associated with husband's marital adjustment.

SH 8. Similarity of age is positively associated with wife's marital adjustment.

SH 9. Similarity of age is positively associated with couple's marital adjustment.

Family background similarity The data on family background similarity and marital success and adjustment are far from conclusive. The only family background variable consistently supported is parents' marital happiness. Therefore, we will offer an exploratory case hypothesis about the similarity of parents' marital happiness and spouses' marital adjustment. For a full discussion of the family background similarity variable with a summary of the major research, see, e.g., Burchinal (1964) and Moss et al. (1971). The theoretical rationale for these hypotheses is based upon the literature on socialization, which explains that children

acquire their ideas about roles by observing role models (persons in roles)(see, e.g., Dager, 1964; Zigler and Child, 1969). By using the socialization perspective, it could be argued that children acquire their ideas on what the role of husbands and wives should be by observing their parents as role models. Landis (1960) posits that children coming from homes where their parents are happily married will have an easier time adjusting to marriage themselves. Expanding this argument, we might expect couples coming from families where both sets of parents were happily married to have more congruence of role models and thus experience less difficulties in adjusting to their marriage. On the other hand, if one spouse comes from a family where the parents' marriage was either unsuccessful or unhappy and the other spouse comes from a family where the parents' marriage was defined as happy, we might expect different levels of expectations and, thus, more difficulty in achieving satisfactory adjustments to marriage.

Therefore, the following specific hypotheses are proposed about similarity of parents' marital happiness and marital adjustment.

SH 10. Similarity of spouse's parents' marital happiness is positively associated with husband's marital adjustment.

SH 11. Similarity of spouse's parents' marital happiness is positively associated with wife's marital adjustment.

SH 12. Similarity of spouses' parents' marital happiness is positively associated with couple's marital adjustment.

Value similarity Although value consensus is frequently inferred when explaining the relationship between background similarity and marital adjustment (see, e.g., Burgess and Wallin, 1943, 1944, 1953; Locke, 1951; Burgess and Cottrell, 1939; Terman et al., 1938; Terman and

Oden, 1947; Goode, 1956; Selfors et al., 1962; Otto and Featherman, 1972; Bumpass and Sweet, 1972), it has never been measured directly.

Theoretically, the similarity of values variable has been treated in conjunction with marital adjustment by Christensen (1964) and Christensen and Johnsen (1971). Noting that values influence behavior, Christensen and Johnsen (1971: 70) posit an explanation for the relationship between spousal value conflicts and marital adjustment:

> "Where conflict exists, the resulting interaction inevitably leaves one or both partners with unfulfilled expectations. When the society contains conflicting values and the people in that society are highly mobile, the probability of people marrying with divergent values is increased. Supposedly, the mate selection process operates to weed out those with greatly differing values. But many values, highly important in the daily interaction of marriage, are not brought to light or have different meanings in the interaction before marriage."

It is evident from Christensen and Johnsen's discussion of value conflicts that similarity of social experiences as evidenced by social background variables is not an adequate indication of value similarity for married couples.

Christensen (1964) contends that it is impossible to adequately evaluate a marriage without taking the values of both spouses into account. Christensen and Johnsen (1971: 71) note that:

> "It is how a thing relates to one's individual values, ...that really counts--more perhaps than the thing itself. This is what is meant by the principle of value relevance. How people see things or define the situation often determines their action or the consequences of this action. This perception of the situation is affected by values."

Therefore, the following specific hypotheses are proposed about spouses' value similarity and marital adjustment.

SH 13. Spouse's value similarity is positively associated with husband's marital adjustment.

SH 14. Spouse's value similarity is positively associated with wife's marital adjustment.

SH 15. Spouses' value similarity is positively associated with couple's marital adjustment.

Summary of specific hypotheses

Four variables on similarity of social experiences and one variable on orientations to life have been conceptually discussed, with each treated as an independent variable and integrated into a set of specific hypotheses derived from the general level hypothesis. Table 3 summarizes the theoretical relationship among each independent variable (which Zetterberg, 1965, refers to as determinants) and the three dependent variables (referred to, using the Zetterberg nomenclature, as results).

Summary

In the first section of this chapter, the research problem was discussed. Strategies for building theory were noted, and a brief review of theory borrowed from the literature on socialization and small groups was presented. This was followed by a brief discussion of the general level hypothesis, which was developed by using borrowed theory. In the next section, the major variables were conceptualized. And, in the final section of this chapter, pertinent literature relating to homogamy theory was reviewed and specific hypotheses were derived. In Chapter III, the methods and procedures used in carrying out this research will be presented.

Table 3. Theoretical matrix showing the relationship of determinants and results in a propositional (specific hypotheses) format[a]

Determinants (Independent variables)	Results (Dependent variables)		
	Husband's Mar. Adj.[b]	Wife's Mar. Adj.	Couple's Mar. Adj.
Religious similarity	SH 1	SH 2	SH 3
Educational similarity	SH 4	SH 5	SH 6
Age similarity	SH 7	SH 8	SH 9
Similarity of parents' marital happiness	SH 10	SH 11	SH 12
Value similarity	SH 13	SH 14	SH 15

[a]It is hypothesized that each determinant in the rows is positively associated with each result in the columns.

[b]Marital Adjustment.

CHAPTER III: METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The methods and procedures followed in carrying out this research are discussed in this chapter. A brief discussion of the empirical setting of the study will be followed by a description of the population and sample studied. This will be followed by a discussion of the data collection and field procedures. Next, the operationalization and measurement of the variables will be presented. And finally, the statistical techniques to be employed in the analysis of the data will be reviewed.

Empirical Setting for the Study

The site of the research was the community of Ames, Iowa, located in the center of the state, approximately 30 miles north of Des Moines, the state capital. In the sociological sense of community, Ames is part of the larger metropolitan Des Moines area since it is dependent upon the larger area for some types of transportation and marketing facilities and services. Ames' population of about 40,000 includes the students, faculty, and staff of a large state university. The headquarters for the Iowa State Highway Commission is in Ames. Other government facilities are: a major laboratory for the U. S. Atomic Energy Commission, the National Animal Disease Laboratory, and several divisions of the U. S. Department of Agriculture's Economic Research Service and Agricultural Research Division. Ames is not an industrial city, but does have some light industry, such as branches of 3M and Sundstrand.

Much of the land area in Ames is owned by either the state or federal government. As a result, the cost of land and housing is higher than that in most cities of comparable size.

The Population and Sample

The population

The population was defined as all married couples living within the city of Ames, Iowa, in March of 1971. The Ames community has been characterized (see, e.g., Price, 1969, and Spanier, 1971) as upper-middle class in terms of educational level, occupational prestige, and annual income. The city of Ames, much like the entire state of Iowa, has a low proportion of Negroes and other minority groups. The community of Ames has 33 churches, with the largest memberships in the Methodist, Catholic, Lutheran, and Presbyterian churches. The Ames population is highly mobile, with a constant influx of new students and staff for the university as well as employees at the Iowa State Highway Commission and the National Animal Disease Laboratory.

The following restrictions were imposed in defining the population:

1. Married couples living in the home together
2. Married couples in which both spouses were born in the United States

Sampling design

The sampling design proposed a two-stage selection procedure. In the first stage, an area probability sample of the entire city of Ames was

drawn by the Iowa State Statistical Laboratory. This procedure involved two steps: 1) the community was divided into neighborhood areas by the residential homogeneity criteria imposed by the Iowa State Statistical Laboratory and 2) neighborhood maps were constructed of the 30 areas randomly selected from the entire domain of possible areas.

By constructing the neighborhood area maps of the 30 residential areas selected, we were able to get an exact house count of each area. From this information, each household was assigned a unique number within the neighborhood area. This procedure involved making a decision based upon chance (we flipped a coin for each neighborhood area) of which corner of the street in the area to start the numbering and in which direction to continue in the assignment of identification numbers for individual residences. Then, individual residents were selected within each of the 30 neighborhood areas by using a table of random numbers. A total of 500 households were selected.

A second stage of sampling was necessary since the statistical laboratory did not impose any controls on marital status and nationality. These controls were imposed in two steps: 1) initial screening at the time of the interview and 2) checking of the completed questionnaires. The final sample size, after adjusting for the two controls, was 329 married couples, or 658 individuals.

There were 579 usable completed questionnaires, including data on 314 marriages, with only one partner represented in some instances. Of these, 530 could be matched into married pairs (265 couples). The final N=265 married couples reflects a response rate of 81 percent of the 329

married couples in the original sample of 500 households. The response rate of 81 percent was judged to be good, considering the sensitive nature of many questions asked. None of the 30 tracts alone had a high rate of refusals or incomplete questionnaires.

Characteristics of the sample

The following types of background information will be used to characterize the 265 married couples: 1) present stage in the family life cycle, 2) courtship history, 3) social class, 4) community background of each spouse, and 5) religious orientations of each spouse. First, we will present the family life cycle characteristics.

Family life cycle

Tables 4, 5, 6, and 7 summarize selected data that describe the stage of the family life cycle. In Table 4, a cohort distribution of age by sex indicates that the average age of men in this sample is in the early thirties, with a mean age of 34.4, a median age of 30.3, and an age distribution from 19 to 93 years. For women, the average was slightly lower, with a mean of 32.4 years, a median of 27.9 years, and a range of 18 to 86 years. Thus, we see that the entire span of the family life cycle is represented, with the largest concentration in the early stages of marriage and parenthood.

Table 5 indicates that most couples have been married from 2 to 4 years. The second highest category is from 5 to 9 years. Thus, we see that, although the sample spans the entire family life cycle, 42.6 percent of the couples are in the early stages of marriage. On a whole, the sample has a mean of 11.2 years, with a standard deviation of 12.9.

Table 4. Cohort distribution for husbands' and wives' ages

Age Span (years)	Husbands		Wives	
	N	%[a]	N	%[a]
18 years, 1 month to 19[b]	1	0.4	7	2.6
20 - 29	122	46.0	136	51.3
30 - 39	65	24.5	61	23.0
40 - 49	38	14.3	31	11.7
50 - 59	25	9.4	21	7.9
60 - 69	9	3.4	5	1.9
70 - 79	3	1.1	2	0.8
80 - 89	1	0.4	2	0.8
90 - 93 years, 11 months	1	0.4	0	0.0
Totals	265	$\bar{X}$ = 34.4 S.D. = 13.4	265	$\bar{X}$ = 32.4 S.D. = 12.8
Range	19.00 - 93.92 (74.92)		18.08 - 86.58 (68.50)	

[a]Percentage totals will not always equal 100 due to rounding.

[b]Age was computed using a four-digit number, with the first two digits standing for years and the second, for months. 00 = January, 08 = February, ...92 = December.

Table 5. Frequency distribution for number of years married

Number of years married	Number of couples	%[a]
Less than 1	7	2.6
1	34	12.8
2-4	65	24.5
5-9	49	18.5
10-14	29	10.9
15-19	23	8.7
20-24	15	5.7
25-29	14	5.3
30-34	17	6.4
35-39	5	1.9
40-44	1	0.4
45-49	2	0.8
50-54	2	0.8
55-59	1	0.4
60 or more	1	0.4
Total	265	

$\overline{X}$ = 11.2

S.D. = 12.9

Range = 1 month to 60 years

[a]Percentage totals will not always equal 100 due to rounding.

Table 6. Number of children per couple

Number of children	Number of couples	%[a]
1 Child	64	24.2
2 Children	56	21.1
3 Children	32	12.1
4 Children	20	7.5
5 Children	7	2.6
6 Children	6	2.3
7 Children	1	0.4
8 Children	2	0.8
0 Children (childless couples)	77	29.1
Total	265	

$\bar{X}$ = 1.7 children

S.D. = 1.6

Range = 0 - 8 children

[a]Percentage totals will not always equal 100 due to rounding.

Table 7. Frequency distribution for age of oldest child

Age of oldest child (years)	Number of couples	%[a]
Less than 6 months	13	7.1
6 months-1 year	5	2.7
1-2	14	7.7
2-5	32	17.5
6-9	27	14.8
10-12	14	7.7
13-16	18	9.8
17-20	14	7.7
21-25	19	10.4
26-30	13	7.1
31-35	7	3.8
36-40	1	0.5
41-45	1	0.5
46-50	4	2.2
51-53	1	0.5
Total[b]	183	

$\bar{X}$ = 9.3 years

S.D. = 11.4

Range = 2 months to 53 years

[a]Percentage totals will not always equal 100 due to rounding.
[b]Total N = 183 because the 77 childless couples were not included.

Tables 6 and 7 show that 29.1 percent of the couples have no children and that the average is 1.7 children per couple. The average age of the oldest child is 9.3. This sample is slightly below the national average of 2.7 children per couple.

Having characterized the sample as spanning the entire family life cycle, we need to describe briefly the courtship histories of these 265 married couples.

Courtship history Tables 8 and 9 summarize descriptive data pertaining to the length of courtship and engagement. In Table 8, we see that the mean number of months that a couple knew each other before becoming engaged was 29.1 months (about 2½ years), with a median of 22 months and a mode of 12 months. Note that the couples knew each other before engagement from less than 1 month to over 8 years, quite a variation in the level of courtship development over time before engagement. Length of engagement, similar to that of courtship, ranged from less than 1 month to over 4 years. Table 9 indicates that the average couple was engaged for about 6 months. The mean number of months that a couple was engaged was 6.2, with a median of 5 months and a mode of 6 months.

The descriptive statistics presented in Tables 8 and 9 indicate that the sample is comparable to previous studies with regard to the courtship histories of the couples. See, e.g., Kirkpatrick (1963) and Burgess et al. (1971) for a summary discussion of characteristics of past research on married couples. We need to consider other social characteristics of the backgrounds of the couples; thus, a brief description of the social class characteristics of the couples will be presented next.

Table 8. Frequency distribution for length of time couple knew each other before becoming engaged

Number of months couple knew each other	N	%[a]
6 or less	32	12.1
7-12	62	23.4
13-18	29	10.9
19-24	35	13.2
25-30	16	6.0
31-36	22	8.3
37-42	9	3.4
43-48	17	6.4
49-54	6	2.3
55-62	9	3.4
63-69	5	1.9
70-76	6	2.3
77-82	2	0.8
83-89	2	0.8
90-96	6	2.3
97 or more	7	2.6
Total	265	

$\bar{X}$ = 29.1 months Mode = 12.0 Median = 22.0

S.D. = 25.2

Range = less than 1 month to over 20 years

[a]Percentage totals will not always equal 100 due to rounding.

Table 9. Frequency distribution for length of engagement

Number of months couple was engaged	N	%[a]
Less than 1	25	9.4
1 month	18	6.8
2-3	60	22.6
4-6	82	30.9
7-12	61	23.0
13-18	7	2.6
19-24	7	2.6
25-30	2	0.8
31-36	2	0.8
37-42	0	0.0
43-48	0	0.0
49 or longer	1	0.4
Total	265	

$\overline{X}$ = 6.2

Mode = 6.0

Median = 5.0

S.D. =6.3

Range = less than 1 month to over 4 years

[a]Percentage totals will not always equal 100 due to rounding.

Social class Five variables relating to the social class of the couples will be presented in descriptive summary tables: 1) family income, 2) husbands' occupational prestige, 3) wives' occupational prestige, 4) husbands' educational levels, and 5) wives' educational levels. Table 10 presents a summary of the income distribution for this sample. The average annual income per couple was around $10,000, varying from less than $3,000 to over $50,000. Forty-five percent of the couples had incomes of less than $9,000, 29 percent had incomes between $9,000 and $15,000, and about 25 percent had incomes above $15,000.

Table 11 indicates that the occupational prestige score for the husbands, as measured by the North-Hatt Scale, is slightly above the national average of 69. The mean for this sample is 74.7, with a mode of 74.0 and a median of 74.0, indicating that this sample is upper middle class in terms of occupational prestige of husbands. For wives, the mean score was 62, with a mode of 53 and a median of 58. Forty-seven percent (124) of the wives scored 53, indicating that they are housewives and not gainfully employed outside the home. The mean score for the 53 percent of gainfully employed wives is 69.4, indicating that the wives' occupational prestige scores are also close to the national average.

One additional indicant of social class was included, educational level, which also indicates that this sample is characterized as upper middle class. The mean number of years of formal education for husbands was 3 1/2 years of college, and, for wives, the mean was just under 2 years of college. The husbands' educational levels ranged from some high school through the Ph.D. (mode score of 10), indicating that the greatest

Table 10. Distribution of annual family incomes

Family income level	Score assigned	Number of couples	%[a]
Less than $3,000	1	50	9.4
$3,000-$5,999	2	96	18.1
$6,000-$8,999	3	91	17.2
$9,000-$11,999	4	77	14.5
$12,000-$14,999	5	82	15.5
$15,000-$19,999	6	79	14.9
$20,000-$24,999	7	40	7.5
$25,000-$49,999	8	12	2.3
$50,000 or more	9	3	0.6

Total N = 265 couples

$\overline{X}$ = 4.0 ($9,000-$11,999)

S.D. = 1.9

[a]Percentage totals will not always equal 100 due to rounding.

Table 11. North-Hatt Occupational Prestige Scale scores for husbands and wives.

Score	Husbands		Wives	
	N	%[a]	N	%[a]
90-93	3	1.1	0	0.0
85-89	49	18.7	6	2.4
80-84	18	7.0	0	0.0
74-79	107	40.4	54	20.4
69-73	24	9.2	10	3.8
64-68	37	14.0	46	17.2
63-59	16	6.0	15	5.7
54-58	3	1.1	7	2.6
50-53	6	2.3	124	47.7
45-49	1	0.4	3	0.6
40-44	1	0.4	0	0.0
Totals	265		265	
$\bar{X}$ =	74.7		62.0 for all wives 69.4 for gainfully employed wives only	
S.D. =	9.3		10.0	

[a]Percentage totals will not always equal 100 due to rounding.

number of husbands had received at least one advanced degree (median score of 7.7), indicating that the average was near 4 years and an earned Bachelors Degree. The mode for wives was high school graduate, and the median was just under 2 years of college. Educational levels for wives ranged from grade school through the Ph.D.

Table 12. Educational levels of husbands and wives

Highest level of schooling attained	Score	Husbands N	Husbands %[a]	Wives N	Wives %[a]
Grade school	1	0	0.0	1	0.4
Some high school	2	7	2.6	5	1.9
High school graduate	3	20	7.6	63	23.9
Trade or other schooling beyond high school	4	17	6.4	25	9.5
1 year of college	5	7	2.6	35	13.3
2 years of college	6	18	6.8	21	8.0
3 years of college	7	53	20.0	23	8.7
B.S. degree or equivalent	8	42	15.9	61	23.1
Some graduate work	9	31	11.7	20	7.6
Received a graduate degree	10	70	26.4	11	4.2
Total		265	$\bar{X}$=7.5 S.D.=2.3	265	$\bar{X}$=5.8 S.D.=2.3

[a]Percentage totals will not always equal 100 due to rounding.

The next section will present selected descriptive data on the size of community each spouse was reared in, the region of the country they grew up in, and the length of time the couple has lived in Ames and in their present neighborhood.

Community background Table 13 indicates that a large number of the respondents grew up in communities smaller than Ames, although about 17 percent of the husbands and 18 percent of the wives came from larger urban areas.

Table 13. Size of hometown for husbands and wives

Size of community raised in	Score	Husbands N	Husbands %[a]	Wives N	Wives %[a]
Less than 1,000	1	72	27.1	73	27.5
1,000 to 5,000	2	58	21.8	64	24.2
5,000 to 20,000	3	50	18.8	47	17.7
20,000 to 50,000	4	40	15.0	36	13.6
50,000 to 250,000	5	29	10.9	26	9.8
250,000 or more	6	16	6.0	19	7.2
Total		265	$\bar{X}$=2.8 S.D.=1.5	265	$\bar{X}$=2.8 S.D.=1.6

Range = 429 to 1,240,000

[a]Percentage totals will not always equal 100 due to rounding.

Region of the country reared in The majority of the respondents were reared in the Midwest, although about 20 percent come from different regions of the country and 3.4 percent of the husbands and 2.3 percent of the wives grew up outside of the United States. Iowa was most frequently listed as the home state for both husbands and wives, with 68.2 percent of the husbands and 70.4 percent of the wives growing up in Iowa. Table 14 summarizes the distribution by region of the country for husbands and wives separately.

Length of time in Ames Note that the respondents represent a fairly stable community anchorage, with a mean of 10.2 years residence in Ames, although the mode was from 2 to 4 years (3 years) and the median was just under 5 years (4.7 years). Table 15 indicates that the couples have resided in Ames from less than 1 year to over 72 years.

Length of time in neighborhood Further examination reveals that most couples have lived in their present neighborhood about as long as they have lived in Ames. Table 16 indicates that 37 percent of the couples have lived in Ames for 1 year or less at the time of the study, 30.2 percent of the couples have lived in Ames from 2 to 4 years and that about 33 percent of the couples have lived in Ames for 5 years or longer. The mean number of years a couple have lived in their present house is 5.8 years, with a mode of 1 year and a median of 2.4 years. Couples vary from less than 1 month to over 72 years in the length of time that they have lived in their present home.

Religious orientations Religious orientations are frequently used in describing a particular sample. In a discussion of the population

Table 14. Region of the country reared in for husbands and wives

Region of the country reared, with states represented in parentheses	Score	Husbands N	Husbands %[a]	Wives N	Wives %[a]
Southwest (New Mexico, Arizona, Oklahoma, Texas)	1	4	1.5	5	1.9
Rocky Mountain (Colorado, Montana, Idaho, Utah, Wyoming, Nevada)	2	5	1.9	6	2.3
Western seaboard (California, Oregon, Washington, Alaska, Hawaii)	3	14	5.3	11	4.1
Midwest (The Dakotas, Nebraska, Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Michigan, Illinois, Indiana, Ohio)	4	205	77.0	211	79.6
South (Alabama, Miss., Georgia, Florida, Louisiana, Arkansas, Tennessee, Virginia, The Carolinas, Kentucky)	5	7	2.6	8	3.0
Eastern seaboard (New York, Mass., Connecticut, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Washington, D.C.)	6	20	7.5	16	6.0
Outside the U.S.A. (England, Spain, France, Iran, Japan, Costa Rica, Africa)	7	9	3.4	6	2.3
No Answer (missing data)	0	1	0.4	2	0.8
Total		265	$\bar{X}$=4.1 S.D.=1.0	265	$\bar{X}$=4.1 S.D.=1.0

Range = 0-7

[a]Percentage totals will not always equal 100 due to rounding.

Table 15. Length of time the couple has lived in Ames

Number of years	N	%[a]
1 year or less	52	19.6
2-4 years	77	29.0
5-9 years	48	18.1
10-14 years	28	10.5
15-19 years	9	3.4
20-29 years	26	9.8
30-39 years	10	3.8
40-49 years	10	3.8
50-59 years	3	1.1
60-69 years	1	0.4
70 years or more	1	0.4

N = 265 couples

$\bar{X}$ = 10.0 Median = 4.9 Mode = 1.0

S.D. = 11.7 Range = less than 1 month-72 years

[a]Percentage totals will not always equal 100 due to rounding.

Table 16. Length of time in present neighborhood in Ames

Length of time couple has lived in present neighborhood (years)	N	%[a]
Less than 1	8	3.0
1	89	33.6
2-4	80	30.2
5-9	38	14.3
10-15	27	10.2
16-20	5	1.9
21-25	7	2.6
26-30	6	2.3
31-35	1	0.4
36-40	0	0.0
41-45	0	0.0
46-50	3	1.1
51-55	0	0.0
56-60	0	0.0
61-65	0	0.0
66-70	0	0.0
71 or more	1	0.4

N = 265 (couples)

$\overline{X}$ = 5.8

S.D. = 8.7 Range = Less than 1 month-over 72 years

[a]Percentage totals will not always equal 100 due to rounding.

characteristics in an earlier section of this chapter, we noted that the Ames community has 33 churches and that the majority of the memberships are centered around the Methodist, Lutheran, Catholic, and Presbyterian churches. Table 17 shows that this sample is representative of the population in this breakdown by denominational preference. Since religious similarity will be used as an independent variable in hypothesis testing, a measure of religious orthodoxy was constructed based upon earlier works by the author (see Cole, 1968, and Cole and Engle, 1970, for an elaboration and discussion of religious orthodoxy and religious affiliation in relation to religiosity). Using the six classification ranks suggested by Glock and Stark (1965), Cole (1968) classified religious affiliations by religiosity ranks by using the Faulkner and DeJong (1966) five-dimensional scale to measure religiosity. It is recognized that this is a crude estimation of religious orthodoxy since no checks were made for religiosity on the sample used in this dissertation research, but it can be used with some confidence based upon findings in Cole's (1968) earlier work since the author will exercise caution in interpreting the hypotheses relating to religious orthodoxy.

Table 18 indicates that this sample varies from very active participation in church services and functions to very inactive, with some (about 9 percent of the husbands and 8 percent of the wives) reporting that they never attend church. On a whole, the sample reflects a pattern of church attendance similar to that in earlier works by the author (Cole and Engle, 1970; Cole, 1968; Engle and Cole, 1970). The average church attendance for husbands reflects moderate anchorage in church activities with a mean of

Table 17. Religious affiliation preferences and orthodoxy rankings for husbands and wives

Religious affiliation	Orthodoxy classification and rank score	Husbands N	Husbands %[a]	Wives N	Wives %[a]
Jewish	(Jew)=5	1	0.4	2	0.8
Roman Catholic	(Catholic)=3	43	16.2	56	21.1
Protestant (Total - all denominations)		191	72.1	191	72.1
Specific denominations					
Episcopal	(Liberal)=6	6	2.3	6	2.3
Presbyterian	(Liberal)=6	29	10.9	29	10.9
Disciples of Christ	(Liberal)=6	3	1.1	3	1.1
Methodist	(Moderate)=4	56	21.1	46	17.4
Lutheran	(Conservative)=2	45	17.0	51	19.3
Baptist	(Conservative)=2	8	3.0	11	4.1
Church of Christ	(Fundamentalist)=1	2	0.8	4	1.5
Church of God	(Fundamentalist)=1	1	0.4	1	0.4
No denomination specified		41	15.5	40	15.1
None		23	8.7	14	5.3
No answer (missing data)		7	2.6	2	0.8
Total		265		265	
Orthodoxy rank $\bar{X}$		2.7		2.7	
Orthodoxy rank mode		4.0		2.0	
Orthodoxy rank S.D.		4.1		4.8	

[a]Percentage totals will not always equal 100 due to rounding.

Table 18. Frequency of church attendance for husbands and wives

Frequency of attendance	Score	Husbands N	Husbands %[a]	Wives N	Wives %[a]
Once a week or more	5	94	35.5	106	40.0
At least once a month	4	42	15.8	39	14.7
Occasionally during the year	3	52	19.6	56	21.1
Rarely	2	52	19.6	44	16.6
Never	1	24	9.1	20	7.5
No answer (missing data)	0	1	0.4		
Total		265	$\bar{X}$=3.4 S.D.=1.4 Mode=5.0	265	$\bar{X}$=3.6 S.D.=1.4 Mode=5.0

[a]Percentage totals will not always equal 100 due to rounding.

3.4 and a mode of 5, indicating that approximately 36 percent of the husbands attend church weekly, that 39 percent attend church less than once a month, and that almost 16 percent attend church at least once a month. Consistent with other studies (see, e.g., Lenski, 1963, Glock and Stark, 1965) the wives are slightly more active participants in church activities. The mean score for the wives was 3.6, with a mode of 5.0, indicating a relatively consistent pattern with that of their husbands, with slightly more regularity of attendance (40.0 percent reported attending and participating in church activities at least once a week).

Summary of characteristics of the sample This sample of 265 married couples can be characterized as reflecting all points of the family life cycle. Both husbands and wives are above the national average in level of schooling. The husbands are above the national average on occupational prestige ranks, as are the gainfully employed wives, although 48 percent of the wives were not gainfully employed. The majority of both husbands and wives were reared in the midwest in communities of under 20,000. The median number of years the couple has lived in Ames was just under 5 years. The sample can be characterized as moderately religious, with the average church attendance being slightly higher for wives than for husbands, although over a third of both husbands and wives attend church regularly at least once a week. Over 70 percent of the sample is comprised of Protestants, with the largest categories of religious affiliation being Methodist, Lutheran, and Presbyterian. Almost a fifth of the sample are Roman Catholic.

Data Collection and Field Procedures

Development and pretest of the research instrument

A 10-page questionnaire was developed by the author in collaboration with a colleague who helped direct the research activities. A copy of the questionnaire is in Appendix A. The questionnaire is geared to tap four types of information: 1) demographic and background characteristics, 2) personal values, 3) marital adjustment, and 4) attitudes toward extramarital and comarital sexual relations.

The instrument was pretested by the author on a sample of 20 married couples in February 1971. The pretest procedure consisted of asking both the husband and wife to complete the questionnaires separately and then discuss the questionnaire items with the researcher. The pretest clarified the presentation of items and eliminated ambiguous items in the personal values scale which the author constructed specifically for this research.

The interviewing process

Several students enrolled in the author's sections of a course in courtship and marriage volunteered to help in the data collection portions of this research in lieu of writing a term paper. Since the students were unfamiliar with the techniques of interviewing and questionnaire distribution and collection, a short course was given by the author and a research associate for training the students in interviewing and field procedure techniques. Four 2-hour sessions were held for this purpose in which the purposes of interviewing and self-administered questionnaires were explained and demonstrations of interviewing situations were presented. After observing each student practice interviewing other students for one full session and after consulting individually with each student to be certain they could perform the prescribed tasks, the interviewers were sent into the field. Each interviewer was assigned from 15 to 20 houses in which to contact respondents and distribute questionnaires.

The procedure for collecting the data was as follows. Residents of

a given residential area were always contacted during the same evening. The interview-questionnaire distribution and pick-up phase of the research lasted about 2½ weeks, beginning the last week of March 1971 and ending by the middle of April 1971. The interviewers introduced themselves to the residents upon making contact and immediately explained the purpose of the study. After an initial screening of the respondents to determine their eligibility for the sample, the interviewers solicited the cooperation of both husband and wife and gave them verbal instructions on how to complete the questionnaire. The importance of the study was stressed and the respondents were assured that the information was confidential and that they would remain anonymous. The importance of the couple not discussing the questionnaire before or during the completion of the questionnaire was stressed also. Finally, an appointment was made for the interviewer to pick up the completed questionnaires. Ninety-five percent of the questionnaires were collected within 24 hours after they were distributed. Usually, if one spouse completed the questionnaire, both spouses would complete the questionnaire. A call-back schedule was assigned to interviewers for the homes where no one was at home on the initial contact and distribution night. After collecting the questionnaires, the interviewers brought them to the researcher's office for checking and coding assignments.

Data-processing procedures

A code book was constructed by the author, and training sessions were given to each of the volunteer coders. The first step in processing the

data consisted of checking the questionnaires and interviewer disposition report summaries to make certain that both spouses met the sample criteria. At the same time, the questionnaires were checked for missing data, and, if more than a few isolated items were unanswered, the questionnaire was not included in the final N for analysis and was assigned an identification code signifying that major sections of the questionnaire had missing data. After assembling all the completed questionnaires by husband-wife pairs, couple identification numbers were assigned, and the questionnaires were coded by student assistants who were supervised by the author throughout the coding operation. After the student assistants had completed the coding, the questionnaires were reassigned to another student assistant and independently recoded. Then, the code sheets from the two independent codings were checked against each other by teams of students calling the numbers out to each other. This method was time-consuming and tedious, but it prevented errors, since many coding errors were caught in the team checking stage. After the student assistant had completed the coding and checking tasks, the questionnaires were returned to the researcher for a final spot checking before having the cards key punched. The error ratio detected by the spot checking was less than one out of two hundred. Key punch operators at the Iowa State University Statistical Laboratory transferred the data from code sheets to IBM cards. Computer programming was written by a research associate, Graham Spanier, and the reported analyses were calculated by the IBM 360 computer at the Vogelback Computing Center at Northwestern University.

Summary of data collection and field procedures

A 10-page self-administered questionnaire was developed and pretested to solicit information on marital adjustment. The questionnaires were distributed and picked up by students trained as interviewers. The data were coded on IBM code sheets and punched on IBM cards. Computer programs using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) (Nie et al., 1970) were written, and the data were analyzed on a computer.

Operationalization and Measurement

The dependent variable: Marital adjustment

The dependent variable in this research, marital adjustment, was operationally defined as the score that individual spouses and couples received on a 15-item scale developed by Locke and Wallace (1959). The scale was constructed by using all the items used in prior research on marital adjustment. By using the amount of discriminative power of each item as a criterion, the best 15 items were selected from the total domain of items and tested for validity with the longer marital adjustment schedules that Locke (1951) and Burgess and Wallin (1953) had used. The Locke-Wallace short form of the marital adjustment scale correlated with the longer schedules at above .70 and with the Locke-Wallace Marital Prediction Schedule at .47. Locke and Wallace, using the split-half technique, reported a Spearman-Brown Reliability Estimate of .90. Subsequent studies using the Locke-Wallace Short Marital Adjustment Test have reported estimates of reliability consistent with those of Locke and Wallace by using the split-half technique. For a review of studies using

the Locke-Wallace scale, see Straus (1969). More recently, Edmonds et al., (1972) and Spanier (1972, 1973) have challenged the reliability and validity of the Locke-Wallace scale. Spanier (1972) notes that the reliability for the scale is reduced to less than .80 when using the more conservative estimates of the Spearman-Brown Average Inter-item Formula and the Cronbach-Alpha Formula.

Thus, we need to examine the reliability estimates for this sample carefully. To do this, separate estimates will be made for husbands and wives. This will allow us a means of detecting sex differences in the scale's performance. By using the Cronbach-Alpha test for reliability, which examines the relationship between the item variances and the total scale variance, a coefficient of .70 was found for husbands, and a coefficient of .78, for wives. This indicates that the scale is performing reasonably consistently if we accept .70 as a minimally adequate estimation of reliability. With the Spearman-Brown Average Inter-item Formula, the scale had a .84 reliability estimate for husbands and a .80 estimate for wives.

One other issue of concern about the use of this scale is the question of validity. Edmonds et al. (1972) maintain that the Locke-Wallace scale is contaminated by conventionality and, thus, that it does not differentiate marital adjustment from marital conventionalization. To assess this question, two measures of unconventionality, the incidence of premarital pregnancy and attitudes toward extramarital sexual relations, were used, each of which clearly indicates a personal contravention of cultural values.

It was reasoned that, if the scale were heavily contaminated by conventionality, it would show a significant inverse relationship between high adjustment to marriage and the incidence of a premarital pregnancy. Similarly, it was hypothesized that marital adjustment would be inversely correlated with attitudes toward extramarital and comarital sex. It was found, using the Cole-Spanier Sexual Fidelity Scale (see Cole and Spanier, 1973), that an inverse relationship exists between marital adjustment and attitudes toward extramarital and comarital sexual relations. The relationship was stronger for husbands ($r = -.27$, $p < .001$) than for wives ($r = -.09$, $p < .07$). Thus, we must conclude that conventionality is operating in the Locke-Wallace scale, especially for husbands.

It could be argued that this correlation discrepancy between husbands and wives is evidence of the double standard as much as it is the contamination of the scale by conventionality. Examining a second indicant of unconventionality, the incidence of premarital pregnancy, sheds some light on the issue. Some might question the use of the premarital pregnancy variable as an indicant of unconventionality; it could be argued, however, that conception before marriage is a contravention of the societal norm that restricts childbirth and childrearing to the marital setting. This norm was even more pronounced 10 years ago than it is today. Since the mean length of time married was just over 11 years, it was reasoned that the premarital pregnancy factor could be used with some confidence.

The incidence of a premarital pregnancy evidently affects husbands and wives differently with regard to marital adjustment. For husbands, the incidence of a premarital pregnancy is inversely related to marital adjustment ($r = -.09$, $p < .07$), but for wives, the relationship was positive

(r = .006, N.S.). Thus, we must conclude that some factors operating within the marriage must be related to conventionality, but that these factors do not operate consistently for spouses, since the husband's marital adjustment seems more sensitive to conventionality than does that of the wife.

In this dissertation, marital adjustment will be reported for individual spouses separately, with husband's marital adjustment as an indicant of his perception of the marriage and wife's marital adjustment as an indicant of her perception of the marriage. Note that it was reported in the review of the marital adjustment literature discussed in Chapter II that few studies have collected comparable data on both spouses; most studies use one spouse's score on a marital adjustment test as an indication of the adjustment of the couple. In this dissertation, an attempt is made to construct a collective indicant of the couple's adjustment to the marriage by using both the husband's and the wife's scores. It is realized that this effort is merely exploratory since we have no precedent for adding the two scores together and treating the combined score as a collective indicant of couple's adjustment to the marriage. Several possibilities for deriving a collective indicant were explored, but nothing more sophisticated than a simple additive model seemed appropriate since our work is exploratory. (See Appendix F).

In summary, marital adjustment will be treated as the dependent variable and will be measured by three indicants, each providing a different perspective on the marriage; 1) husband's marital adjustment, as measured by his score on the Locke-Wallace Short Marriage Adjustment Test; 2) wife's

marital adjustment, as measured by her score on the Locke-Wallace Short Marriage Adjustment Test; and 3) couple's adjustment to the marriage, as measured by the combined total scores of husband's marital adjustment and wife's marital adjustment.

Empirical hypotheses treating each of these 3 measures of marital adjustment as dependent variables will be formulated in the next chapter.

The independent variables

Five independent variables were identified and discussed in relation to marital adjustment in Chapter II. In this section, a brief discussion of the empirical indicants used to measure each of the independent variables will be presented. Since value similarity is the only independent variable measured by a difference in scale scores, we will first discuss the scale used to measure values. This will be followed by a brief explanation of how each independent variable was operationally defined and measured.

The values scale One of the purposes of this dissertation was to provide a means of testing the effects of value similarity upon marital adjustment. Therefore, a scale to measure values of individual spouses was constructed.[1] The scale construction followed a series of steps suggested by Upshaw (1968), Edwards (1959), Warren et al. (1969), Wolins and

[1] All the existing scales were evaluated and considered inadequate for the purposes of this research. Many of the scales contain items so far removed from reality that respondents have considerable difficulty understanding the questions. Other scales were rejected because they were specifically developed for specialized populations, such as religious groups, educational groups, etc. For a review of the literature on values and scales that have been used to measure values, see, e.g., Warland (1966) and Robinson and Shaver (1969).

Mackinney (1965), Riley (1963), and Kerlinger (1964). The steps involve the use of a combination of Thurstone scaling and Likert scaling. Thurstone and Chave (1948) suggest that item selection should be based upon theory and that the items should represent all points on the continuum. Following this suggestion, the author attempted to collect a domain of items that purport to measure values.

Over a hundred items were gleaned from the literature on values. Several were taken in their original form from existing scales. Other items were modified from the original form that they had appeared in in established scales. The scales most closely examined were the Morris' (1959) Ways to Live Study of Values, the Allport et al. (1960) A Study of Values Scale, the Shorr (1953) Test of Value Activities, and the Rokeach (1968) Value Survey Scale. Some of these scales seemed inappropriate for this investigation in their existing forms, although several of the original set of items collected by the author were adaptations of items from these scales.

Another source of items was a seminar on marital adjustment and values in fall 1970, in which an entire quarter was spent constructing items to measure values. Over 60 items were written and evaluated by panels of students and the professor. The best 50 items and a scale to measure marital adjustment were included in a questionnaire administered to a sample of 90 married couples living in student housing at Iowa State University in November 1970. The pilot study revealed that 13 of the 50 items field tested correlated significantly with marital adjustment.

Altogether, the author assembled a pool of 173 statements

thought to represent the domain of value items. As a first condition, items were evaluated in terms of how well they might reflect differences between husbands' and wives' orientations to life. Udry et al. (1961) found that the more abstract measures of value preferences, such as those proposed by Allport et al. (1960), were less sensitive to spousal differences and suggested that preferences more directly related to the marital functioning of the couple were more sensitive discriminators of value differences. Therefore, a second condition imposed on the item evaluation was that the item must reflect preferences that might be manifest in behavioral preferences. Barton (1969) suggests a similar strategy in measuring values, noting that the best indication of what a person values is a person's preferential behavior.

Therefore, the items were framed in a preferential behavior context by beginning each item with the phrase, "It is important for me..." for directly worded items and phrasing indirectly worded items just the opposite by beginning the item with the phrase, "It is not important for me...."

A systematic review of the pool of 173 items indicated that over half the items were much too complex, some in paragraphs, for use in the questionnaire for this research. Therefore, all the highly complex statements were pulled out, and some were discarded. Others were thought to contain meaningful statements and were retained in a shortened, modified form. For example, from long, complex paragraphs used in the Morris' Ways to Live Scale, single-sentence statements were written to tap the theoretical dimension and the religious dimension.

Other items were discarded because the situations posed in the statements seemed unrelated to the purposes of this research. For example, many items in the Shorr (1953) Test of Value Activities and the Scott (1965) Personal Values Scales were related to specific groups, such as students in an academic setting, etc.

After imposing the restrictions mentioned, the total of 173 items was reduced to 60. At this point, the 60 items were submitted to a panel of 7 judges, persons who had some expertise in the social psychology of marriage. The judges were instructed to rate each item in terms of how a person who agreed with the statement would value the criterion value, the family, by placing the item on a continuum, with a higher placement indicating greater importance attached to the family. The three points on the continuum defined for the judges were: the upper limit, high (11); the midpoint, neutral (6); and the lower limit, low (1).

The purpose of the panel's evaluation was to determine the place each item fell on the continuum, to aid in the direction of scoring, and to eliminate ambiguous items. The panel's ratings indicated that 19 of the 60 items were ambiguous as evidenced by the variance among ratings. It also is evident that the items did cover the continuum, ranging from the two polar extremes, with some items around the midpoint. The items evaluated by the judges are listed in Appendix B.

The remaining 41 items were included in the questionnaire for pretesting on a sample of 20 married couples. The objective of the pretest was to evaluate the instrument under field conditions so that additional items ambiguously worded or failing to discriminate between high and low scores

could be dropped. Item analysis comparisons were made, using the total scores calculated for each of the 40 individuals in the pretest sample, by dividing the pretest sample into quartiles and using the 1st and 4th quartiles for item analysis comparisons. If the item failed to discriminate between highs and lows as evidenced by 1st and 4th quartile groupings or if 10 or more respondents considered it ambiguous, the item was dropped. Seventeen items were dropped for these reasons. Thus, only 24 items were retained and included in the final questionnaire.

The value items were presented in the questionnaire by using the certainty method (Warren et al., 1969), a response framework that requires the respondents to make two kinds of decisions on individual items: 1) a directional disposition, indicating agreement or disagreement, and 2) a certainty judgment, indicating how strongly he feels about his disposition toward the item. Using this response framework, the individual selects one of 11 different categories.

The response framework is scored by assigning weighted values to each of the intensity categories of 1 through 5. An assumption is made that the more extreme dispositions differ significantly from less extreme dispositions. Therefore, the following values are assigned to the intensity levels: 1=1, 2=2, 3=3, 4=5, and 5=8, with the sign of the weight being determined by the direction of scoring as indicated by the mean rating for each item as determined by the panel of judges. The assignment of weights to the intensity of disposition provides a range of from -8 to +8, with 0 the neutral point. Warren et al. (1969) suggest a transformation procedure that allows each weight to be treated as a positive integer by adding +8 to each value, thus producing a range from 0 to 16 with a neutral

point of 8. The transformation procedure is as follows:

Response	D-5	D-4	D-3	D-2	D-1	A/D	A-1	A-2	A-3	A-4	A-5
Numerical weights	-8	-5	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	5	8
Transformed weights	0	3	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	13	16

After constructing the scale by using the procedures discussed, the scale was subjected to a number of measurement criteria. Nunnally (1967) suggests that scales should be evaluated in terms of validity and reliability. Warren et al. (1969) posit a set of criteria for evaluating scales that assess the properties of scales by using empirical evidence. Suggesting that additivity is one of the most important properties of a scale, Warren et al. (1969: 14-16) list three conditions that must be met in adding items to a scale: 1) linearity of responses to different items; 2) homogeneity of variance and independence from the means; and 3) homogeneity of inter-item correlations. A concurrent validation technique was used to assess validity. To test for commonality, an established scale with highly consistent norms and the 24-item scale constructed for this research were administered to an independent sample of 48 students enrolled in the author's sections of a course in courtship and marriage. The results revealed that the 24-item scale correlated with the Morris' (1959) Ways to Live Study of Values Scales at .67, lending some evidence that the 24-item scale is measuring values. For an elaboration of the Morris' (1959) scale, see Morris (1959), Robinson and Shaver (1969), and Wilson and Nye (1966). The scaling norms reported indicate that it has performed consistently on a variety of samples. The mean score on the Morris' Ways to Live Scale in

the independent sample test used for concurrent validation was 25.3, with a standard deviation of 2.8. The mean score for the 24-item value scale constructed by the author of this dissertation was 193.6, with a standard deviation of 26.2.

The three conditions of additivity (Warren et al., 1969) were imposed on the values scale data collected on the 265 married couples in the Ames married-community sample. The minimal acceptable item-total correlation, r_{it}, for the 24-item values scale is

$$\frac{1}{24} = .205.$$

Inspection of Table 19 indicates that three items fail to meet the minimal .205 criterion and must be deleted from the scale for the items to meet the first condition, linearity of responses to different items. One other item is marginal with an r_{it} of only .20 but will be retained, thus leaving a 21-item values scale. The 21-item scale has a reliability estimate, using the Cronbach-Alpha formula:

$$\frac{N}{N-1}\left(1-\frac{\text{Sum of item variances}}{\text{Total score variance}}\right),$$

of .73 for husbands and .71 for wives.

The second condition was that the means and standard deviations be relatively independent. The data in Table 19 show that the means and standard deviations are independent for both husbands and wives in this sample.

The third condition of additivity is that the inter-item correlations

should be positive and homogeneous. Over 60 percent of the inter-item correlations for the 21-item values scale (reported in Appendix C) are concentrated in a range between .10 and .30. The range of inter-item correlations was from -.05 to .56 for the total sample of 530 individuals. Breakdowns by gender were run, but revealed little differences; average inter-item correlation for husbands was .16, and, for wives, .17. Therefore, to conserve space, the inter-item correlations reported will be for the total sample of 530. The reliability estimate, using the Spearman-Brown Average Inter-item Correlation Formula:

$$\frac{n\ (\bar{r})}{1+\ (n-1)\ (\bar{r})}\ ,$$

for the values scale is .79 for husbands and .81 for wives. Thus, we have two separate tests of reliability indicating that the 21-item values scale is performing consistently.

Having discussed the scale used to measure values, we will resume our discussion of the operationalization and measurement of the independent variables. Since we have just discussed values, we will begin by discussing the operationalization of the value similarity variable.

Value similarity The value similarity variable was operationally defined, using the absolute difference in spouses' scores on values as the indicant of value similarity, as the magnitude of spousal differences on the 21-item values scale. The range in scores was from 0 to 117, with the lower score indicating greater similarity. The mean score was 27.6, with a standard deviation of 22.2.

Religious similarity Four indicants of religious similarity were

Table 19. Data pertaining to items in the values scale[a]

Item number [b]	Husbands			Wives		
	r_{it}	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	r_{it}	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
1	.53	7.3	3.6	.46	7.6	3.7
2	.35	6.7	3.5	.30	6.2	3.7
3	.51	7.7	4.1	.50	9.5	3.5
4	.56	8.3	3.9	.56	7.8	3.9
5	.36	9.1	4.4	.40	9.9	4.4
6	.60	9.4	3.0	.51	10.3	3.3
7	.39	13.2	3.1	.35	14.2	2.7
8	.28	11.1	3.0	.29	12.1	2.8
9	-.08	7.5	4.1	-.11	6.7	3.9
10	.56	11.0	4.8	.47	13.0	4.3
11	.35	7.9	4.9	.49	9.1	5.0
12	-.14	5.0	4.2	-.09	4.6	3.6
13	.54	9.6	4.2	.45	10.9	4.0
14	.20	5.2	3.7	.25	5.3	4.0
15	-.12	8.1	4.3	-.15	7.7	4.5
16	.41	9.6	3.3	.46	9.5	4.4
17	.28	11.6	3.3	.31	12.1	3.4
18	.29	11.9	3.1	.29	11.9	3.1
19	.31	11.9	2.9	.27	11.4	3.0

[a]Items correlating negatively with the total scale score were dropped before computing reliability estimates.

[b]Item numbers correspond to the order used in the questionnaire.

Table 19 (Continued)

Item number[b]	Husbands			Wives		
	r_{it}	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	r_{it}	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
20	.51	8.6	3.6	.31	7.3	3.9
21	.34	11.8	3.2	.48	11.5	3.4
22	.43	7.7	3.5	.40	6.9	3.6
23	.50	10.2	3.5	.41	11.1	3.4
24	.53	11.7	3.5	.43	11.5	3.7
21-item scale total score		201.8	33.6		209.3	31.5
24-item scale total score		232.4	48.3		228.7	54.0
Cronbach Coefficient Alpha Reliability Estimate		.73			.71	
Spearman-Brown Average Inter-item Correlation Reliability Estimate		.79			.81	

used: 1) whether spouses were of the same religion before marriage, 2) whether spouses were of the same religion at the time of the study, 3) similarity of spouses' church attendance, and 4) similarity of spouses' religious orthodoxy rank.

Spouses of the same religion before marriage This indicant was measured by item 11, "Were you and your spouse of the same religion before you were married?" The responses were in a simple yes-no forced choice

format, with "yes" scored as 1 and "no" scored as 0, with 132 or 49.8 percent of the couples answering "yes." We will report only the wives' answers, since past research has shown that wives generally demonstrate greater accuracy in recall types of information. For a discussion of this rationale, see Luckey (1960b). The husband's response to this question was identical to his wife's for over 98 percent of the couples. Thus, we can validate one spouse's response to the item by checking it against the other spouse's response to the same item.[2]

Spouses of the same religion at time of study The empirical indicant was item 10, "Are you and your spouse of the same religion?" A simple yes-no format was scored with "yes" as 1 and "no" as 0. Most couples (211 or 79.6 percent) reported being of the same religion.

Spouses' similarity of church attendance This indicant was measured by the difference in spouses' answers to item 12, "About how often do you usually attend church services or activities?" The range of responses was from 1 to 5, with "never" as 1 and "once a week or more" as 5. The indicant was operationally defined as the magnitude of the absolute difference in spouses' church attendance. The range of differences was from 0 to 4, with 0 indicating no difference or high similarity and 4 indicating a great difference, such as one spouse attending church services every Sunday and the other never attending. The mean score on spouses' similarity of church attendance was .36, with a standard deviation of .64.

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[2]This validation check was made for each item on the questionnaire that dealt with a knowledge and(or) behavioral content; for every item, the estimation of error was less than 3 percent, as evidenced by husband-wife agreement on the item. Therefore, to conserve space, these recall estimates of agreement will not be reported in the discussion of each item.

Similarity of spouses' religious preference orthodoxy rank

The empirical indicant, measured in an open-ended format, was item 9, "What is your religious denomination, if any?" The religious affiliation preference of each spouse was ranked on a 6-point scale from fundamentalist to liberal by using a ranking procedure suggested by Cole (1968) and discussed in the section on religious orientations of spouses earlier in this chapter. This variable was operationally defined as the magnitude of the absolute difference in orthodoxy ranks of spouses' religious preferences. The range on the orthodoxy rank similarity variable was from 0 to 3, with 0 indicating that the spouses were members of religious affiliations within the same orthodoxy rank and 3 indicating a difference of 3 ranks. The mean score was .12, with a standard deviation of .29.

Age similarity of spouses Age similarity was measured by item 2, "What is your age? (in years and months)." This variable was operationally defined as the magnitude of the absolute difference in spouses' ages at the time of the study. The mean difference was 2.9 years, with a standard deviation of 5.5 and a range from 0, indicating same age, to 62 years.

Similarity of spouses' parents' marital happiness Parents' marital happiness was measured by item 13, "Would you say that your parents' marriage was: 1) very happy, 2) happy, 3) about average, 4) fairly happy, or 5) very unhappy?" The ratings were on a 5-point scale, with 5, "very happy;" 1, "very unhappy;" and 3, "about average." The variable was operationally defined as the magnitude of the absolute difference in spouses' ratings of their own parents' marital happiness. Using the absolute difference in ratings provides us with an indicant of the similarity

of spouses' families of orientation. The mean difference was .97, with a standard deviation of .94 and a range of from 0 to 5, with 0 indicating that both spouses rated their parents' marriages "very happy" and 5 indicating that spouses had rated their parents' marriages at opposite ends of the scale.

Educational similarity of spouses Educational level of each spouse was measured by item 6, "What is the highest level of schooling which you have attained thus far: 1) grade school, 2) some high school, 3) high school completed, 4) trade or other schooling, 5) one year of college, 6) 2 years of college, 7) 3 years of college, 8) B.S. degree or equivalent, 9) some graduate work, or 10) received a graduate degree?" Educational similarity was operationally defined as the magnitude of the absolute difference in levels of educational attainment. The range of differences was from 0 to 7 for this sample, with 0 indicating the same level of schooling and 7 indicating a 7-point difference on the 10-point scale used to measure the variable. The mean difference in educational levels was 2 years, with a standard deviation of 1.7.

Summary of operationalization and measurement

Three measures of marital adjustment were operationally defined and will be treated as the dependent variables in the empirical hypotheses, which will be presented in the next chapter. One or more empirical indicants were offered as operational definitions of each of the five independent variables. In the next section of this chapter, the statistical techniques used in testing hypotheses and in model building will be briefly reviewed.

Analysis Techniques

The data will be analyzed using zero-order correlations for testing two-variable hypotheses. The correlation coefficient affords the researcher a means of determining the degree of correspondence or relationship between two variables. The theoretical range of the correlation is from 0, indicating that the two variables are unrelated, to $\pm$ 1.0, indicating perfect unity. A perfect positive correlation, 1.0, would indicate that, as one variable increases in magnitude, the other variable makes a corresponding increase. A perfect negative correlation, -1.0, would indicate that, as one variable increases in magnitude, the other variable makes a corresponding decrease. The zero-order correlation makes the following assumptions about the data: 1) interval level units of measurement, 2) a normally distributed population, 3) homogeneity of variance, 4) independence of means and variances, and 5) uncorrelated and randomly distributed errors.

The researcher admits that not all the independent variables meet all the assumptions for using parametric statistical tests. Some statisticians, however, do suggest that some of these assumptions can be relaxed (see, e.g., Baker et al., 1967, and Burke, 1967) as long as the dependent variable is interval level and the other measures are at least ordinal level.

After testing each of the single-relationship hypotheses, we will attempt to build a prediction model by using a step-wise regression model building procedure. The step-wise regression model is a multiple regression technique that allows the researcher to evaluate a set of independent variables and select the subset of independent variables that will best predict the dependent variable. The procedures involved will be explained in conjunction with the presentation of the findings in the next chapter.

Summary of Methods and Procedures

Chapter III has provided a discussion of the methods and procedures used in carrying out this research. The first section of this chapter described the empirical setting in which the study was conducted. This was followed by a description of the sampling procedures, with the characteristics of the sample presented in summary tables. In the next section, the data collection and field procedures used in collecting and processing the data were reviewed. This was followed by a discussion of the operational definitions and measurement criteria for each variable. In the final section of this chapter, the statistical techniques used in analyzing the data were reviewed. In Chapter IV, the empirical hypotheses and the statistical findings will be presented.

CHAPTER IV: FINDINGS

The research findings will be presented in three major sections in this chapter. In the first section, the hypotheses of the study and the results of each two-variable hypothesis will be presented. Second, results of multiple regression model building will be presented. Finally, additional variables not included in the model will be analyzed.

The General Level Hypothesis

In Chapter II, the following general level hypothesis (GH) was developed: in a dyadic relationship, the greater the similarity of social experiences and orientations to life, the greater the group cohesion and adjustment to the dyadic relationship. Two more specific hypotheses, sub-general level hypotheses (SGHs), were derived from the GH:[3]

SGH 1. In the marital dyad, the greater the similarity of social experiences, the greater the adjustment to the marriage.

SGH 2. In the marital dyad, the greater the similarity of orientations to life, the greater the adjustment to the marriage.

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[3]The general level hypothesis (GH) and the two sub-general level hypotheses (SGHs) will not be restated before the presentation of each empirical hypothesis. The reader should keep in mind that each EH and its corresponding statistical hypothesis affords an indirect test of the GH.

Three dependent variables were offered: 1) husband's marital adjustment, 2) wife's marital adjustment, and 3) couple's marital adjustment. Five theoretically relevant independent variables were identified, and 15 specific hypotheses (SH)[4] were proposed. In Chapter III, each variable was operationally defined and now will be used in the empirical hypotheses (EH) that will represent the 15 SH and thus afford an indirect test of the SGH and the GH. Each EH will be tested using statistical hypotheses.[5]

Tests of Empirical Hypotheses

Religious similarity and marital adjustment

Four EHs are offered to test each of the 3 SH on religious similarity and marital adjustment. Since each EH focuses upon two-variable relationships by using the same independent variables with 3 separate dependent variables, the EHs will be presented in sets of 3, presenting each dependent variable separately in an EH with the independent variable.

Spouses of the same religion before marriage The first empirical indicant used to test this SH is: the score on the index of spouses of the same religion before marriage. The following EHs are tested:

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[4]Each of the 15 specific hypotheses (SH) will not be restated, but will be referred to, after the identification number of the corresponding empirical hypothesis (EH), by the SH identification number used in Chapter II.

[5]Each EH is tested using a statistical hypothesis. The form for stating the statistical hypothesis is: 1) the null hypothesis, H_0: $P \leq 0$ and 2) the alternative hypothesis, H_A: $P > 0$. Empirical hypotheses cannot be directly tested; they are indirectly tested using the null hypothesis. If the relationship is not statistically significant at the .05 level, the alternative hypothesis is rejected and the null hypothesis is accepted. If the relationship is statistically significant at the .05 level, the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted.

EH 1: 1. The higher the score on the index of spouses of the same religion before marriage, the higher the husband's score on the marital adjustment scale.

$r = .02$ N. S.[6]

EH 1: 2. The higher the score on the index of spouses of the same religion before marriage, the higher the wife's score on the marital adjustment scale.

$r = .06$ N. S.

EH 1: 3. The higher the score on the index of spouses of the same religion before marriage, the higher the couple's score on the marital adjustment scale.

$r = .04$ N. S.

EHs 1, 2, and 3 were not supported. Thus, the null hypotheses for no relationship between spouses of the same religion before marriage and marital adjustment of either spouse or the couple's total adjustment are accepted.

Spouses of the same religion now The second empirical indicant used to test this SH is: the score on the index of spouses of the same religion now. The following EHs are tested:

EH 4: 1. The higher the score on the index of spouses of the same religion now, the higher the husband's score on the marital adjustment scale.

$r = .16$ $P < .005$

EH 5: 2. The higher the score on the index of spouses of the same religion now, the higher the wife's score on the marital adjustment scale.

$r = .10$ $P < .05$

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[6]N. S. refers to not statistically significant at the minimal acceptance level of .05; the minimal correlation value for significance at the .05 level is .101 for an N=265. All correlations reported were computed with 265 observations, thus the d.f. for all correlations is N-1, or 264.

EH 6: 3. The higher the score on the index of spouses of the same religion now, the higher the couple's score on the marital adjustment scale.

$r = .14$ $P < .01$

EHs 4, 5, and 6 were supported. Thus, the null hypotheses for no relationship between the spouses of the same religion now and marital adjustment are rejected, and the alternative hypotheses are accepted that spouses being of the same religion is related to marital adjustment for husbands, wives, and couples.

Degree of difference in spouses' church attendance The third empirical indicant used to test this SH is: the score on the index of degree of difference in spouses' church attendance. The following EHs are tested:

EH 7: 1. The higher the score on the index of degree of difference in spouses' church attendance, the lower the husband's score on the marital adjustment scale.

$r = -.18$ $P < .002$

EH 8: 2. The higher the score on the index of degree of difference in spouses' church attendance, the lower the wife's score on the marital adjustment scale.

$r = -.19$ $P < .001$

EH 9: 3. The higher the score on the index of degree of difference in spouses' church attendance, the lower the couple's score on the marital adjustment scale.

$r = -.20$ $P < .001$

EHs 7, 8, and 9 were each supported. Thus, the null hypotheses for no relationship between degree of difference in spouses' church attendance

and marital adjustment are rejected, and the alternative hypotheses are accepted that similarity of spouses' church attendance is related to marital adjustment for husbands, wives and couples.

Degree of difference in spouses' religious preference orthodoxy rank The fourth empirical indicant used to test this SH is: the score on the index of the degree of difference in spouses' religious preference orthodoxy rank. The following EHs are tested:

EH 10: 1. The higher the score on the index of degree of difference in spouses' religious preference orthodoxy rank, the lower the husband's score on the marital adjustment scale.

$r = -.04$ N. S.

EH 11: 2. The higher the score on the index of degree of difference in spouses' religious preference orthodoxy rank, the lower the wife's score on the marital adjustment scale.

$r = -.08$ N. S.

EH 12: 3. The higher the score on the index of degree of difference in spouses' religious preference orthodoxy rank, the lower the couple's score on the marital adjustment scale.

$r = -.05$ N. S.

EHs 10, 11, and 12 were not supported. Therefore, the null hypotheses for no relationship between degree of difference in spouses' religious preference orthodoxy ranking and marital adjustment are accepted.

In summary, these data fail to confirm the hypothesized relationship between religious similarity and marital adjustment. Since half the EHs were supported, we must conclude that some factors related to religious similarity may be related to marital adjustment. These two factors,

similarity of spouses' church attendance and spouses of the same religion, now will be further explored in a later section of this chapter.

Educational similarity and marital adjustment

Degree of difference in levels of spouses' educational attainment

The single-item indicant used to test this SH is: the score on the index of degree of difference in spouses' educational attainment. The following EHs are tested:

EH 13: 4. The higher the score on the index of degree of difference in spouses' educational attainment, the lower the husband's score on the marital adjustment scale.

$r = .04$ N. S.

EH 14: 5. The higher the score on the index of degree of difference in spouses' educational attainment, the lower the wife's score on the marital adjustment scale.

$r = -.06$ N. S.

EH 15: 6. The higher the score on the index of degree of difference in spouses' educational attainment, the lower the couple's score on the marital adjustment scale.

$r = -.03$ N. S.

Empirical hypotheses 13, 14, and 15 were not supported. Therefore, the null hypotheses for no relationship between degree of difference in spouses' levels of educational attainment and marital adjustment are accepted. Note, however, that for husbands, the correlation was positive, opposite to the hypothesized direction. For wives and couples, the correlation was in the hypothesized direction but failed to be of a high enough magnitude to have occurred beyond chance. In summary, these data

fail to confirm the hypothesized relationship between educational similarity and marital adjustment.

Age similarity and marital adjustment

Degree of difference in spouses' age The single-item indicant used to test this SH is: the score on the index of degree of difference in spouses' age. The following EHs are tested:

EH 16: 7. The higher the score on the index of degree of difference in spouses' age, the lower the husband's score on the marital adjustment scale.

r = .06 N. S.

EH 17: 8. The higher the score on the index of degree of difference in spouses'age, the lower the wife's score on the marital adjustment scale.

r = -.06 N. S.

EH 18: 9. The higher the score on the index of degree of difference in spouses'age, the lower the couple's score on the marital adjustment scale.

r = .007 N. S.

EHs 16, 17 and 18 were not supported. Therefore, the null hypotheses for no relationship between the degree of difference in spouses' ages and marital adjustment are accepted. Again, the correlations failed to be significant at the .05 level, but the correlations were in opposite directions for husbands and wives, with the relationship being in the hypothesized direction for wives but not for husbands or couples.

Similarity of spouses' parents' marital happiness

Degree of difference in spouses' parents' marital happiness The single-item indicant used to test this SH is: the score on the index of degree of difference in spouses' parents' marital happiness. The following EHs are tested:

EH 19: 10. The higher the score on the index of degree of difference in spouses' parents' marital happiness, the lower the husband's score on the marital adjustment scale.

$r = -.02$ N. S.

EH 20: 11. The higher the score on the index of degree of difference in spouses' parents' marital happiness, the lower the wife's score on the marital adjustment scale.

$r = -.12$ $P < .03$

EH 21: 12. The higher the score on the index of degree of difference in spouses' parents' marital happiness, the lower the couple's score on the marital adjustment scale.

$r = -.07$ N. S.

EHs 19 and 21 were not supported, although they were in the hypothesized direction. EH 20, however, was supported. Therefore, the null hypotheses for no relationship between degree of difference in spouses' parents' marital happiness and husband's marital adjustment and couple's marital adjustment are accepted. The null hypothesis of no relationship between spouses' parents' marital happiness and wife's marital adjustment is rejected, and the alternative hypothesis is accepted that similarity of spouses' parents' marital happiness is related to wife's marital adjustment.

Value similarity and marital adjustment

Degree of absolute differences in spouses' values The indicant used to test this SH is: the score on the index of degree of spousal value differences, as measured by a 21-item values scale. The following EHs are tested:

EH 22: 13. The higher the score on the index of degree of spousal value differences, the lower the husband's score on the marital adjustment scale.

$r = -.12$ $P < .02$

EH 23: 14. The higher the score on the index of degree of spousal value differences, the lower the wife's score on the marital adjustment scale.

$r = -.14$ $P < .01$

EH 24: 15. The higher the score on the index of degree of spousal value differences, the lower the couple's score on the marital adjustment scale.

$r = -.14$ $P < .01$

EHs 22, 23, and 24 were supported. Thus, the null hypotheses for no relationship between the degree of spousal differences on the values scale and marital adjustment are rejected, and the alternative hypotheses that value similarity is related to husband's, wife's and couple's marital adjustment are accepted. This relationship between value similarity and marital adjustment will be further explored in a later section of this chapter.

Multiple Regression Model Building

The results of the zero-order correlations used in hypothesis testing in the preceding section can be interpreted only as a simple measure of association that examines each independent variable with each dependent variable separately. Thus, the correlational analysis provides no evidence of the multivariate relationships of combinations of independent variables with each of the dependent variables. Furthermore, the zero-order correlation does not detect spuriousness. Therefore, a multivariate technique, a stepwise multiple regression, will be used to further evaluate the independent variables and to build a prediction model. This will be done by building three separate models to predict marital adjustment, one for husbands, one for wives, and one for couples. In the husbands' model, the dependent variable will be husbands' score on the marital adjustment scale. In the wives' model, the dependent variable will be wives' score on the marital adjustment scale. In the couples' model, the dependent variable will be couples' score on the marital adjustment scale.

Nie et al. (1970) note that the advantage of multiple regression over zero-order correlations and simple regression is that multiple regression allows the researcher to examine the linear relationships between a set of independent variables and a number of dependent variables while taking into account the inter-variable relationships of a set of independent variables in the model as well as those excluded from the model because of concomitant or spurious effects. Note that much of the

same information could be obtained by using a higher order partial correlation analysis. Using the stepwise regression procedure allows the researcher to assess which variables in the model are making a contribution to predicting the dependent variables, husbands' marital adjustment, wives' marital adjustment and couples' marital adjustment. The procedure takes into account the relative contribution of all variables in the model simultaneously as it evaluates each variable entered into the model. Thus, the assessment of how much variance a given independent variable contributes to explaining the dependent variable is made in light of all other variables in the model and spurious relationships can be detected.

Draper and Smith (1966) explain the stepwise procedure as follows: 1) beginning with a simple correlation matrix, each coefficient is examined, and the independent variable with the highest zero-order correlation coefficient is the first variable entered into the model; 2) next, using partial correlations, the independent variable with the highest partial correlation coefficient is entered; 3) a partial F test is computed for both independent variables in the model, with each being treated as though they were the last variable entered; 4) if the partial F for either independent variable is less than a predetermined significance level, the variable is removed from the model; 5) each procedure is repeated until the partial F tests for all variables not in the model are non-significant.

The following criteria were established to evaluate each variable as it was entered into the equation: 1) the partial F value had to meet or exceed the .01 level of significance; 2) the tolerance level had to be

.001 or greater. Since one purpose of this procedure was to detect spuriousness, each independent variable will be entered for consideration. The results of the stepwise regression analysis are presented separately for husbands, wives, and couples.

Stepwise regression for husbands' marital adjustment

The results of the stepwise regression analysis, presented in Tables 20 and 21, indicate that four similarity variables make a significant contribution to explaining husbands' marital adjustment score. The first variable entered, degree of difference in spouses church attendance,[7] explains a little over 3 percent of the variance in husbands' marital adjustment. The second variable entered, spouses of the same religion before marriage, makes a contribution of a little over 1 percent of the variance not explained by the first variable entered. The third variable, spouses of the same religion now, makes an additional contribution of 1 percent of the variance not explained by the first two variables entered. Thus, we see that the religious similarity variable measured by these three indicators explains about 5 1/2 percent of the variance in husbands' marital adjustment. The fourth variable entered, degree of spousal differences in values, makes an additional contribution of slightly over 1 percent of the variance left unexplained by the other three religious similarity variables. Thus, these four similarity variables explain about 7 percent of the variance in the husband's score on the marital adjustment scale.

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[7]To aid the reader, the independent variables and their components (items) will be underlined.

Table 20. Results of stepwise regression for all significant similarity variables in the husbands' marital adjustment prediction model

Variable entered	b*[a]	S.E.[b]	Partial F	Multiple R	Cumulative R^2	R^2 Change
Degree of difference in spouses' church attendance	-.1606	1.9	8.8	.18	.032	.032
Spouses of the same religion before marriage	.1639	2.5	6.1	.22	.044	.013
Spouses of the same religion now	.1208	3.6	5.1	.24	.056	.012
Degree of spousal differences in values	-.1037	0.06	4.6	.26	.067	.011

[a] b* is the standardized coefficient for b, or the standardized beta weight.

[b] S.E. is the standard error for the regression.

Table 21. Summary of analysis of variance for the regression model predicting husbands' marital adjustment with similarity variables

Analysis of variance	Degrees of freedom	Sum of squares	Mean square	F
Regression	4	7846.0446	1961.5112	4.6205***
Residual	260	110376.0459	424.5233	

***$p < .005$

Stepwise regression for wives' marital adjustment

The regression analysis presented in Tables 22 and 23 for wives is similar to that for husbands. Five variables were entered into the prediction equation for wives' marital adjustment. The first variable entered, degree of difference in spouses' church attendance, explains almost 4 percent of the variance in the wives' marital adjustment score. The second variable entered, spouses' similarity in values, as evidenced by the degree of spousal differences in values, makes an additional contribution of almost 2 percent of the variance left unexplained by the first variable entered. The third variable entered, degree of difference in spouses' parents' marital happiness, explains an additional 1 percent of the variance left unexplained by the variables already in the model. The fourth variable entered, spouses of the same religion before marriage, makes an additional contribution of just under 1 percent to the variance left unexplained by the variables already in the model. The last variable entered, spouses of the same religion now, makes an additional contribution

of slightly under 1 percent of the explained variance beyond that explained by the variables already in the model. Thus, almost 8 percent of the variance in the wives' score on the marital adjustment scale is explained by these 5 independent variables.

Stepwise regression for couples' marital adjustment

The results of the stepwise regression analysis for couples' marital adjustment using the similarity variables are presented in Tables 24 and 25. Five variables make a significant contribution to explaining the variance in couples' marital adjustment scores. As with the stepwise regressions for husbands' marital adjustment and wives' marital adjustment, the first variable entered was degree of difference in spouses' church attendance, which explains a little over 4 percent of the variance. The second most important variable, degree of spousal differences in values, explains almost 2 percent of the variance beyond that explained by the first variable entered in the model. The third variable entered, spouses of the same religion before marriage, explains an additional 1 percent of the variance not explained by the two variables already in the model. The fourth variable entered, spouses of the same religion now, makes an additional contribution of 1 percent of the unexplained variance. The fifth variable entered, degree of difference in spouses' parents' marital happiness, explains less than 1/4 of a percent of the variance not already explained by the other four variables in the model. The addition of the degree of difference in spouses' parents' marital happiness variable is minimal, but the partial F test is significant at the .01 level and the tolerance level is above the .001 minimum.

Table 22. Results of stepwise regression for all significant similarity variables in the wives' marital adjustment prediction model

Variable entered	b*[a]	S.E.[b]	Partial F	Multiple R	Cumulative R^2	R^2 Change
Degree of difference in spouses' church attendance	-.1608	1.7	9.7	.19	.036	.036
Degree of spousal differences in values	-.1287	0.05	7.2	.23	.05	.017
Degree of difference in spouses' parents' marital happiness	-.0888	1.2	5.5	.25	.059	.008
Spouses of the same religion before marriage	.1297	2.2	4.6	.26	.067	.008
Spouses of the same religion now	.1002	3.2	4.1	.27	.075	.008

[a] b* is the standardized coefficient for b, or the standardized beta weight.

[b] S.E. is the standard error for the regression.

Table 23. Summary of analysis of variance for the regression model predicting wives' marital adjustment with similarity variables

Analysis of variance	Degrees of freedom	Sum of squares	Mean square	F
Regression	5	6847.2378	1369.4475	4.1799***
Residual	259	84855.45667	327.6273	

***P < .005

Summary of stepwise regression results for similarity variables

The results of each of the three stepwise regression models shows that the homogamy theory as tested by these variables explains less than 10 percent of the variance in the marital adjustment scores of husbands, wives, or couples. Note that the similarity of religion variables were the most consistent contributors to the prediction models. In each model, the first variable entered was degree of differences in spouses' church attendance. Furthermore, the variable spouses of the same religion before marriage was being spuriously hidden in the simple correlations by the variable spouses of the same religion now. The stepwise regression models indicate that both variables, spouses of the same religion before marriage and spouses of the same religion now make a unique contribution to explaining the variance in the dependent variables. Note also that the variable degree of spousal differences in levels of educational attainment failed to enter the model, indicating that it contributes virtually nothing to explaining the variance in the marital adjustment variable for

Table 24. Results of stepwise regression for all significant similarity variables in the couples' marital adjustment prediction model

Variable entered	b*[a]	S.E.[b]	Partial F	Multiple R	Cumulative R^2	R^2 Change
Degree of difference in spouses' church attendance	-.1780	3.3	11.4	.20	.04	.041
Degree of spousal difference in values	-.1224	0.09	8.1	.24	.06	.017
Spouses of the same religion before marriage	.1638	4.3	6.5	.26	.07	.011
Spouses of the same religion now	.1231	6.0	5.7	.28	.08	.011
Degree of difference in spouses' parents' marital happiness	-.0404	2.3	4.6	.29	.08	.002

[a] b* is the standardized coefficient for b, or the standardized beta weight.

[b] S.E. is the standard error for the regression.

Table 25. Summary of analysis of variance for the regression model predicting couples' marital adjustment with similarity variables

Analysis of variance	Degrees of freedom	Sum of squares	Mean Square	F
Regression	5	28190.3359	5638.0672	4.6696***
Residual	259	312719.0075	1207.4093	

***P < .005

either spouse or for the couple as a collective unit. The same results were found with regard to the variable degree of difference in spouses' ages. The variable degree of spousal differences in values made a slight contribution to explaining each of the three dependent variables, although it was entered earlier in the wives' and couples' marital adjustment models than it was in the husbands' marital adjustment prediction model.

The value similarity variable needs to be further explicated; additional analysis will be presented examining each of the 21 items individually. Using a paired-comparison t test, the response set for husband-wife pairs evidenced such a little amount of variance that the variable degree of spousal difference in values might have been artificially shrunken in importance.

Reexamining the Value Similarity Variable

Note that 13 of the 21 value items evidenced enough spousal difference to be significant using a pair-comparison t test. Note also that

the husband-wife response on 20 of the 21 items correlated significantly at the .05 level or better, giving us some evidence of value consensus between spouses. This high degree of correspondence between spouses on values partly explains why the value similarity variable made such a modest contribution to explaining the marital adjustment scores of individual spouses as well as couples.

Table 26 lists the 21 items in the order they will appear in Tables 27 and 29. Table 27 presents the results of the paired-comparison t test and the husband-wife correlations in individual value items. Husbands' and wives' scores correlated at .43 on the 21-item scale, with mean scores of 201.8 for husbands and 209.3 for wives.

Further evidence of husband-wife differences in values on the 21-item scale is presented in a frequency distribution in Table 28. Note that 26 percent of the couples had a difference of 10 points or less on the total scale score. Over 60 percent of the couples had a difference of less than 30 points on the total score. Thus, less than 30 percent of the couples had a difference in values greater than 40 points. This also indicates why the value similarity variable as measured by the degree of difference in spouses' value preferences did not make a more significant contribution to explaining the marital adjustment scores of individual spouses or couples.

Summary of the value similarity reexamination

Decomposing the values scale and examining each item separately by running correlations between each value item difference score and the

Table 26. Item identification number for value items

Item identification number	Item
1	It is important for me to be close friends with the people in the neighborhood.
2	It is important for me to be actively involved in local political activities.
3	It is important for my clothes to be fashionable.
4	It is important for me to improve my position in the community.
5	It is important for me to pay cash for what I buy.
6	It is important for me to have furniture that looks good.
7	It is important to consider my spouse's desires when I make decisions about what I want to do with my life.
8	It is important for children to have a part in family decisions.
9	It is important for me to believe in God.
10	It is important for me to have a time set aside for formalized worship.
11	It is important for me to have my spouse share (his/her) every hope, desire, and disappointment.
12	It is important for me to gain more from a relationship than I put into it.
13	It is important to me to have my own biological children.
14	It is important to me to be able to help my parents financially in their old age if they need help.

Table 26 (Continued)

Item identification number	Item
15	It is important to me to be constantly reading and learning new and different things.
16	It is important to me to be aware of what's happening in other parts of the world.
17	It is important to me to have a job that pays a lot of money.
18	It is important to me to feel my job is benefiting my fellowman.
19	It is important for me to have a job that is prestigious.
20	It is important for me to work in a job in which I feel very secure.
21	It is important for me to work in a job which utilizes talents with which I have been trained.
22[a]	It is important for me to make my own decisions independent of other people's influence.
23[a]	It is important for me to have some things I can keep private.
24[a]	It is important to me to be completely independent of my relatives.

[a] Items 22, 23, and 24 were dropped from the scale, but will be included as individual items in the additional analysis section of this chapter.

Table 27. Results of a paired-comparison t test for the items in the values scale

Item no.[a]	$\bar{X}$		S.D.		Correlation		Paired-comparison t value	
	Husbs	Wives	Husbs	Wives				
1	7.3	7.6	3.6	3.8	.33	P < .001	-1.1	N.S.
2	6.8	6.2	3.5	3.6	.28	P < .001	2.0	P < .05
3	7.7	9.5	4.1	3.5	.27	P < .001	-6.3	P < .001
4	8.3	7.8	4.0	3.9	.25	P < .001	1.5	N.S.
5	9.0	9.9	4.4	4.3	.44	P < .001	-3.0	P < .003
6	9.4	10.3	3.4	3.4	.36	P < .001	-3.8	P < .001
7	13.2	14.2	3.1	2.7	.16	P < .001	-4.4	P < .001
8	11.2	12.2	3.1	2.8	.22	P < .001	-4.5	P < .001
9	11.0	13.0	4.9	4.3	.41	P < .001	-6.3	P < .001
10	7.9	9.1	4.9	5.1	.58	P < .001	-4.3	P < .001
11	9.6	10.9	4.2	4.0	.24	P < .001	-4.5	P < .001
12	5.2	5.3	3.7	4.0	.16	P < .01	-0.3	N.S.
13	9.6	9.5	4.3	4.4	.30	P < .001	0.4	N.S.
14	11.6	12.0	3.3	3.5	.29	P < .001	-1.8	N.S.
15	12.0	11.9	3.1	3.2	.19	P < .002	0.4	N.S.

16	8.6	7.3	3.7	4.0	.26	P <.001	4.6	P <.001
17	11.9	11.5	3.3	3.5	.18	P <.003	1.5	N.S.
18	6.9	7.7	3.7	3.5	.21	P <.001	-2.7	P <.007
19	10.2	11.1	3.6	3.5	.21	P <.001	-3.1	P <.002
20	11.8	11.5	3.4	3.7	.10	N.S.	0.8	N.S.
21	12.0	11.5	2.9	3.0	.19	P <.002	2.2	P <.05
22[b]	7.6	7.0	4.1	3.9	.16	P <.01	2.7	P <.008
23[b]	5.1	4.6	3.9	3.7	.18	P <.003	1.5	N.S.
24[b]	8.1	7.7	4.4	4.6	.15	P <.01	1.1	N.S.
Composite	201.8	209.3	33.6	31.5	.43	P <.001	-3.5	P <.001

N=265 husband-wife pairs; d.f.=264; 2-tailed probability

[a]Item numbers correspond to the item identification numbers in Table 26.

[b]Items 22, 23, and 24 were dropped from the scale, but will be included as individual items in the additional analysis section of this chapter.

Table 28. Frequency distribution of spousal value difference scores

Absolute difference in husband-wife scores on the 21-item values scale	Frequency (No. of couples)	%	Cumulative %[a]
0-10	70	26.4	26.4
11-20	55	20.8	47.2
21-30	36	13.6	60.8
31-40	31	11.7	72.5
41-50	36	13.6	86.0
51-60	18	6.8	92.8
61-70	7	2.5	95.5
71-80	3	1.2	96.6
81-90	4	1.6	98.1
91-100	3	1.2	99.2
101-110	1	0.4	99.6
111-120	1	0.4	100.0
Total	265 (couples)		
$\bar{X}$=27.6			
S.D.=22.2			
Mode=4.0			
Median=22.3			

[a]Cumulative percentage totals will not always equal 100 due to rounding.

marital adjustment scores for husbands, wives, and couples revealed that the magnitude of the coefficients ranged from .002 to -.32. These results are presented in Table 29. For husbands, all the correlations were negative, showing an inverse relationship between each of the value item difference scores and husbands' marital adjustment score. Only 13 of the correlations, however, were significant at the .05 level or better. For wives, one item difference score (item 4, improve my position in the community) correlated positively, but the magnitude was very small, not approaching even the .10 level of significance. Altogether, 15 of the 24 value item difference scores correlated significantly with wives' marital adjustment score. For couples, the results were similar, with 12 of the 24 value item difference scores correlating significantly with couples' marital adjustment score. The husband-wife difference score on item 4 did not correlate with couples' marital adjustment score. This was because of the canceling effect of a low magnitude negative correlation for husbands and a low magnitude positive correlation for wives.

In summary, it might be suggested that the value difference scores generally correlate negatively with the marital adjustment scores of both spouses as well as couples' marital adjustment scores, giving us some additional support for the value similarity hypotheses of marital adjustment tested in an earlier section of this chapter. Only two value item difference scores correlated at a magnitude of above .20 for all three dependent variables. Both items deal with marriage-specific preferences. One of these two items, (item 7, consider my spouse's desires) correlated at around -.30 with each dependent variable. The other item (item 11, have

Table 29. Zero-order correlations of spousal differences on value items with marital adjustment scores of husbands, wives and couples

Value item number[a]	Husbands' (N=265) Marital Adjustment	Wives' (N=265) Marital Adjustment	Couples' (N=265) Marital Adjustment
1	-.02 N.S.	-.03 N.S.	-.03 N.S.
2	-.10 P < .05	-.11 P < .04	-.10 P < .05
3	-.06 N.S.	-.12 P < .03	-.10 P < .05
4	-.01 N.S.	.002 N.S.	.000 N.S.
5	-.12 P < .03	-.14 P < .01	-.13 P < .02
6	-.04 N.S.	-.10 P < .05	-.07 N.S.
7	-.29 P < .001	-.32 P < .001	-.31 P < .001
8	-.07 N.S.	-.09 N.S.	-.08 N.S.
9	-.01 N.S.	-.01 N.S.	-.01 N.S.
10	-.15 P < .005	-.13 P < .01	-.14 P < .007
11	-.21 P < .001	-.28 P < .001	-.24 P < .001
12	-.007 N.S.	-.02 N.S.	-.009 N.S.
13	-.09 N.S.	-.11 P < .04	-.10 P < .05
14	-.11 P < .04	-.12 P < .03	-.12 P < .03
15	-.10 P < .05	-.10 P < .05	-.05 P < .05
16	-.13 P < .02	-.10 P < .05	-.11 P < .04
17	-.09 N.S.	-.10 P < .05	-.09 N.S.
18	-.009 N.S.	-.004 N.S.	-.006 N.S.
19	-.03 N.S.	-.02 N.S.	-.02 N.S.
20	-.13 P < .02	-.10 P < .05	-.11 P < .04
21	-.10 P < .05	-.03 N.S.	-.08 N.S.

[a]Item numbers correspond to the item identification numbers in Table 26.

Table 29 (Continued)

Value item number	Husbands' (N=265) Marital Adjustment	Wives' (N=265) Marital Adjustment	Couples' (N=265) Marital Adjustment
22[a]	-.11 P < .04	-.09 N.S.	-.10 P < .05
23[a]	-.14 P < .01	-.19 P < .001	-.18 P < .001
24[a]	-.12 P < .03	-.11 P < .04	-.11 P < .04
21-item Composite Score	-.12 P < .03	-.14 P < .01	-.14 P < .01

[a]Items 22, 23 and 24 were dropped from the scale, the composite score is the sum of items 1-21.

spouse share hopes and desires), correlated -.21 with husbands' marital adjustment, -.28 with wives' marital adjustment, and -.24 with couples' marital adjustment.

The discussion to this point has centered around variables established as belonging to homogamy theory, with the consistency model as a framework for analysis. It is evident that the similarity variables used in testing the homogamy theory do not provide enough evidence for prediction of marital adjustment. That less than 10 percent of the variance is explained in scores of husbands, wives, and(or) couples on the marital adjustment scale indicates that additional variables need to be considered. The variables that will be introduced in the next section are "theoretically unfounded." By theoretically unfounded, we mean (1) not theoretically consistent with the variables formally treated in hypotheses testing and(or) (2) previously neglected in marital adjustment research.

Additional Variables for Analysis

Values

Since the value scale has been discussed at some length in Chapter III, we will proceed directly to presenting some of the findings related to the values scale and some of the value items related to marital adjsutment for husbands, wives, and couples.

Table 30 summarizes the results of zero-order correlations between the values scale composite score, individual value items, and the three dependent variables: (1) husbands' marital adjustment, (2) wives' marital adjustment, and (3) couples' marital adjustment. The value scale scores for both husbands and wives correlated significantly with all three dependent variables, indicating that values of both husbands and wives are related to husbands', wives', and couples' marital adjustment.

Further examination of individual items from the values scale indicates that not all the value preferences of spouses are related to marital adjustment. Husbands' marital adjustment correlated with 11 of their own value preferences and 6 of their wives' value preferences. Wives' marital adjustment correlated with 10 of their own value preferences and 7 of their husbands' value preferences. Couples' marital adjustment correlated with 9 of value preferences of husbands and 10 value preferences of wives. Each of these relationships will be explicated further in the next chapter where hypotheses will be generated for further research.

Table 30. Zero-order correlations for value items and the 21-item composite for husbands and wives with husbands', wives', and couples' marital adjustment scores

Value item number[a]	Variable no. Husbands	Variable no. Wives	Husbands' Marital Adjustment score H[b]	Husbands' Marital Adjustment score W[c]	Wives' Marital Adjustment Score H[b]	Wives' Marital Adjustment Score W[c]	Couples' Marital Adjustment Score H[b]	Couples' Marital Adjustment Score W[c]
1	X_1	X_{101}	.04	.08	.04	.09	.05	.09
2	X_2	X_{102}	.03	.03	.05	.09	.04	.06
3	X_3	X_{103}	.13**	.04	.05	.03	.10*	.04
4	X_4	X_{104}	.11*	.11*	.08	.01	.10*	.07
5	X_5	X_{105}	.07	.03	.09	.03	.09	.03
6	X_6	X_{106}	.01	.05	.05	.01	.03	.03
7	X_7	X_{107}	.22****	.17***	.20***	.33****	.23****	.27****
8	X_8	X_{108}	.21****	.07	.15**	.09	.20****	.09
9	X_9	X_{109}	.13**	.16***	.12*	.20****	.14**	.20****
10	X_{10}	X_{110}	.10*	.09	.04	.15**	.08	.13**
11	X_{11}	X_{111}	.33****	.19***	.16***	.26****	.27****	.25****
12	X_{12}	X_{112}	-.05	-.01	-.08	-.03	-.07	-.02
13	X_{13}	X_{113}	.05	.08	.04	.14**	.05	.12*
14	X_{14}	X_{114}	.03	-.01	.07	.08	.06	.04

15	X_{15}	X_{115}	.12*	-.03	.12*	-.01	.13**	.01
16	X_{16}	X_{116}	.06	.20****	.05	.12*	.06	.18***
17	X_{17}	X_{117}	-.06	-.08	-.04	-.12*	-.06	-.11*
18	X_{18}	X_{118}	.13**	.10*	.10*	.13**	.12*	.12*
19	X_{19}	X_{119}	-.02	.01	-.05	-.06	-.03	-.03
20	X_{20}	X_{120}	-.04	.05	-.06	.03	-.05	-.05
21	X_{21}	X_{121}	.02	-.01	.01	.07	-.01	.03
22	X_{22}	X_{122}	.11*	.06	.02	.11*	.07	.09
23	X_{23}	X_{123}	.11*	.11*	.12*	.26****	.13**	.20****
24	X_{24}	X_{124}	-.06	.08	-.01	.11*	-.04	.10*
(21-Item Composite)	X_{25}	X_{125}	.18***	.16***	.13**	.19****	.17***	.19****

*p <.05; **p <.01; ***p <.005; ****p <.001.

[a]See Table 26 for a list of the value items.

[b]Husbands' response to the value item correlated with husband's marital adjustment, wife's marital adjustment and couple's marital adjustment.

[c]Wives' response to the value item correlated with husbands' marital adjustment, wives' marital adjustment, and couples' marital adjustment.

Attitudes toward sexual fidelity

It was reported in Chapter III that attitudes toward extramarital sex were inversely correlated with marital adjustment. The relationship was stronger for husbands ($r = -.27$, $p < .001$) than for wives ($r = -.09$, $p < .07$).

Analysis of the items used to tap attitudes toward extramarital sex revealed that 5 of the 7 items conform to the properties of a scale. (The criteria for scaling were briefly reviewed earlier in Chapter III). The 5-item scale evidenced reliability estimates of .80 for husbands and .75 for wives with the Spearman-Brown Average Inter-item Correlation technique. The Cronbach Coefficient Alpha estimates of reliability were .69 for husbands and .67 for wives. (The items and the inter-item correlations are reported in Appendix C).

Probing further into the relationship between attitudes toward extramarital sex and marital adjustment, it was discovered that husbands' attitudes are significantly correlated with wives' marital adjustment ($r = -.16$, $p < .007$) and couples' marital adjustment ($r = -.24$). Wives' attitudes toward extramarital sex were not significantly correlated with either husbands' marital adjustment ($r = -.09$, $p < .07$) or couples' marital adjustment ($r = -.09$, $p < .07$).

Commitment to the marriage

Commitment is another variable that has been virtually ignored in marital adjustment research. Dean and Spanier defined commitment as

"...the strength of an individual's desire to continue a marriage relationship." In an exploratory study of marital adjustment, they[9] found commitment to be significantly correlated for husbands and wives. The indicant they used to measure commitment was a Bogardus-type scale, with the response framework providing 6 choices to the question: "Which of the following statements best describes how you feel about the future of your marriage?" Two-thirds of their sample selected item number 2, I want very much for my marriage to succeed and will do all I can to see that it does.

Since this type of response framework yielded a low amount of variance (thus restricting the information value), a modified version of this scale using the Certainty Method response framework (discussed in Chapter III) was employed for this dissertation, and it was found that 4 of the 6 items used by Dean and Spanier approach the properties of a scale. The Spearman-Brown Average Inter-item Correlation Reliability estimates were .65 for husbands and .56 for wives. Granted, the reliability estimates are low, but they do give us some indication that these items do cling together and thus might provide a fruitful starting point for future researchers in developing a scale to measure commitment to marriage. (See Appendix C for a presentation of the data used in evaluating the scalability of these items.)

The exploratory results of the commitment show that it is highly correlated with the marital adjustment of husbands, wives, and couples. Husbands' commitment to the marriage correlated (r= .23) with their marital

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[9]Dean and Spanier (unpublished manuscript) found correlations for "Lo" and "Hi" marital adjustment of (r=.31) and r+.30) for husbands and (r=.12) and (r-.28) for wives, respectively.

adjustment (r=.21) with wives' marital adjustment, and (r=.25) with couples' marital adjustment. Wives' commitment to the marriage correlated (r=.31) with their marital adjustment, (r=.13) with husbands' marital adjustment, and (r=.23) with couples' marital adjustment.

Each of these relationships will be explicated and proposed as hypotheses for future research on marital adjustment in the next chapter.

Other variables

Some of the more traditional social background variables, such as husbands' occupation, length of engagement, parents' marital happiness, etc., that have been substantiated in prior research also were included. The social background variables included were discussed in Chapter III as characteristics of the sample. The specific research findings are presented in Appendix D. A brief discussion of significant relationships will be presented in the next chapter.

Summary of additional variables analyzed

Three variables, values, attitudes toward extramarital sex, and commitment to the marriage, were introduced in an exploratory attempt to generate hypotheses for future research on marital adjustment. Each of the three variables correlates significantly with marital adjustment for husbands, wives, and couples.

Summary

The results of the hypotheses used in testing the homogamy theory were presented in this chapter. Multiple regression models were constructed for husbands, wives, and couples separately and showed that the similarity variables are not very powerful predictors of marital adjustment. Less than 10 percent of the variance in the marital adjustment was explained for husbands, wives, or couples. Additional variables were introduced, and simple correlational analysis suggests that values, attitudes toward extramarital sex, and commitment to the marriage are each significantly related to marital adjustment of husbands, wives, and couples. In the next chapter, the implications of the research findings will be discussed and additional hypotheses will be generated on the basis of the exploratory findings. Also, an expanded multiple regression model will be presented to see if the additional variables increase our explanatory power in the marital adjustment of husbands, wives, and couples.

CHAPTER V. ADDITIONAL ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

The sociological meaning of the research findings will be discussed in this chapter. In the first section of the chapter, the data pertinent to the EHs tested in the preceding chapter will be discussed with implications drawn for the homogamy theory of marital adjustment. Second, the variables introduced as falling outside the bounds of the framework used in analyzing the theoretically established variables will be briefly discussed, and hypotheses will be generated for future research. Third, the limitations of this research will be stated and conclusions will be drawn. Finally, suggestions will be made for future research.

Effects of Homogamy on Marital Adjustment

It was proposed in the theory chapter that marital adjustment may be facilitated by similarity of social experiences and values. The EHs tested lend weak support for this proposed relationship.

Religious similarity is related to favorable marital adjustment for husbands, wives, and couples in the context of spouses belonging to the same church both before and after marriage and in the context of similarity of participation in religious activities. No support was found, however, for the hypothesis that degree of difference in religious orthodoxy preferences is inversely related to the degree of marital adjustment for either spouse or for couples. It was thought that this relationship might have been spuriously hidden by the other religious similarity variables, but no spuriousness was detected. It is possible that the measure used for the

variable degree of difference in religious preference is not valid and(or) reliable, since no checks for reliability or validity could be made on this sample.

The data failed to show any significant relationships for educational similarity and marital adjustment of husbands, wives, or couples. Consistent with prior research failing to support the educational difference hypothesis (e.g., Udry, 1971; Hicks and Platt, 1970), the degree of spousal differences in levels of educational attainment was minimal, with the wives having slightly less education than did the husbands. Since the average number of years of schooling was just under 4 years of college for husbands and just under 2 years of college for wives, it is evident that usually both spouses were college educated. This means that both spouses were for the most part exposed to the collegial environment and had acquired a degree of similarity of experience and perspectives.

Similarly, the data failed to show any significant relationship for age differences and marital adjustment of husbands, wives, and couples. The average age difference was just under 2 years. This amount of age difference is normative in our society and thus no undue strain is caused by a slight age difference, with the husband generally being the older spouse.

The data on similarity of spouses' parents' marital happiness show that wives are more strongly influenced by the role models than are husbands. The correlations for husbands and couples were both in the hypothesized direction, but failed to be of high enough magnitude to be statistically significant. Wives' marital adjustment, however, was

significantly related statistically to the degree of similarity of spouses' parents' marital happiness. This finding is expected, since wives generally have developed closer ties to their parents than have husbands. The literature on kinship ties of married offspring further suggest that the wife is the one delegated such responsibilities as writing letters to both sets of parents and functioning as the liason person representing the marital dyad in kinship maintenance activities (e.g., Leslie, 1973).

The final set of empirical hypotheses tested dealt with value similarity of spouses in relation to marital adjustment. Value similarity was significantly related statistically to the marital adjustment of husbands, wives, and couples. Further analysis of the value similarity variable indicates that some of the value preferences were more closely related to marital adjustment than were others. Value similarity was significantly related to the marital adjustment of husbands, wives, and couples in the following areas: 1) the importance of participating in political activities, 2) the importance of improving one's position in the community, 3) the importance of considering spouse's desires when making decisions, 4) the importance of worshiping God, 5) the importance of having spouse share hopes and desires with me, and 6) the importance of feeling secure in one's job. Husbands' marital adjustment also was significantly related to value similarity on the importance of working in a job that utilizes talents for which one has been trained. Wives' and couples' marital adjustment were significantly related to value similarity in the following areas: 1) the importance of having fashionable clothes and

2) the importance of having one's own children. Wives' marital adjustment also was significantly related to value similarity on the importance of having furniture that looks good.

To further evaluate the homogamy theory of marital adjustment, multiple regression models were constructed for husbands', wives', and couples' marital adjustment. The results indicate that the homogamy theory, as evidenced by the variables included in this study, explain about 7 percent of the husbands' marital adjustment and about 8 percent of the wives' and couples' marital adjustment. Therefore, it is evident (as Hicks and Platt, 1970 note) that homogamy theory is of limited utility in predicting marital adjustment. It was reasoned by this writer that value similarity, since it has been cited frequently as an explanation for why religious and educational similarity are positively related to marital adjustment, might be contributing most of the explainable variance in marital adjustment with the homogamy model. Value similarity is related to marital adjustment of husbands, wives and couples, but it contributes less to explaining the variance than does religious similarity. It may be that, with refined measures of values and value similarity and marital adjustment, the relationship would be stronger. Since this research was exploratory in this sense, it might be suggested that future researchers interested in the homogamy theory should refine the values measures and test the hypothesis that value similarity contributes something beyond the contribution of the other social similarity variables.

It also is possible that the more fruitful strategy would be to study perceived value similarity since the literature clearly builds a case for

this hypothesis. In a subsequent study, the author used an expanded version of the research instrument and focused upon the perceptional and role-taking aspects of values as well as roles, commitment, emotional maturity, self-other esteem, and communication. The data has just been collected, and the results will be forthcoming.

Since it is evident that other variables need to be taken into account to build a prediction model for marital adjustment of husbands, wives, and couples, a secondary function of this dissertation is to present some serendipitous findings as hypotheses for future research.

Serendipity and Hypotheses Generating

Merton (1968) notes that one of the goals of research is to discover unexpected relationships. Three variables that are as yet theoretically unfounded with regard to marital adjustment were introduced in Chapter IV. In this section, the significant findings will be stated in the form of hypotheses with the correlations and significance levels listed under each hypothesis. The hypotheses will be stated in sets clustering around the independent variables that were introduced in the preceding chapter.

Husbands' values

EH1-a. Husbands' personal values regarding the family are positively associated with husbands' marital adjustment.

$r = .18$ $P < .005$

EH1-b. Husbands' personal values regarding the family are positively associated with wives' marital adjustment.

$r = .13$ $P < .01$

EH1-c. Husbands' personal values regarding the family are positively associated with couples' marital adjustment.

r = .17 P < .005

EH2-a. Husbands' value of having fashionable clothing is positively associated with husbands' marital adjustment.

r = .13 P < .01

EH2-b. Husbands' value of having fashionable clothing is positively associated with couples' marital adjustment.

r = .10 P < .05

EH3-a. Husbands' value of improving the family's position in the community is positively associated with husbands' marital adjustment.

r = .11 P < .05

EH3-b. Husbands' value of improving the family's position in the community is positively associated with couples' marital adjustment.

r = .10 P < .05

EH4-a. Husbands' value of considering spouses' desires when making decisions is positively associated with husbands' marital adjustment.

r = .22 P < .001

EH4-b. Husbands' value of considering spouses' desires when making decisions is positively associated with wives' marital adjustment.

r = .20 P < .001

EH4-c. Husbands' value of considering spouses' desires when making decisions is positively associated with couples' marital adjustment.

r = .23 P < .001

EH5-a. Husbands' value of including children in making family decisions is positively associated with husbands' marital adjustment.

r = .21 P < .001

EH5-b. Husbands' value of including children in making family decisions is positively associated with couples' marital adjustment.

r = .20 P < .001

EH6-a. Husbands' value of believing in God is positively associated with husbands' marital adjustment.

r = .13 P < .01

EH6-b. Husbands' value of believing in God is positively associated with wives' marital adjustment.

r = .12 P < .05

EH6-c. Husbands' value of believing in God is positively associated with couples' marital adjustment.

r = .14 P < .01

EH7-a. Husbands' value of having a time set aside for formalized worship is positively associated with husbands' marital adjustment.

r = .10 P < .05

EH8-a. Husbands' value of having spouses share hopes, desires, and disappointments is positively associated with husbands' marital adjustment.

r = .33 P < .001

EH8-b. Husbands' value of having spouses share hopes, desires, and disappointments is positively associated with wives' marital adjustment.

r = .16 P < .005

EH8-c. Husbands' value of having spouses share hopes, desires, and disappointments is positively associated with couples' marital adjustment.

r = .27 P < .001

EH9-a. Husbands' value of constantly learning and reading new things is positively associated with husbands' marital adjustment.

r = .12 P < .05

EH9-b. Husbands' value of constantly learning and reading new things is positively associated with wives' marital adjustment.

r = .12 P < .05

EH9-c. Husbands' value of constantly learning and reading new things is positively associated with couples' marital adjustment.

r = .13 P < .01

EH10-a. Husbands' value of feeling that their jobs benefit their fellowmen is positively associated with husbands' marital adjustment.

r = .13 P < .01

EH10-b. Husbands' value of feeling that their jobs benefit their fellowmen is positively associated with wives' marital adjustment.

r = .10 P < .05

EH10-c. Husbands' value of feeling that their jobs benefit their fellowmen is positively associated with couples' marital adjustment.

r = .12 P < .05

EH11-a. Husbands' value of making decisions independently is positively associated with husbands' marital adjustment.

r = .11 P < .05

EH12-a. Husbands' value of privacy is positively associated with husbands' marital adjustment.

r = .11 P < .05

EH12-b. Husbands' value of privacy is positively associated with wives' marital adjustment.

r = .12 P < .05

EH12-c. Husbands' value of privacy is positively associated with couples' marital adjustment.

r = .13 P < .01

Wives' values

EH13-a. Wives' personal values regarding the family are positively associated with husbands' marital adjustment.

r = .16 P < .007

EH13-b. Wives' personal values regarding the family are positively associated with wives' marital adjustment.

r = .19 P < .001

EH13-c. Wives' personal values regarding the family are positively associated with couples' marital adjustment.

r = .19 P < .001

EH14-a. Wives' value of improving the family's position in the community is positively associated with husbands' marital adjustment.

r = .11 P < .05

EH14-b. Wives' value of improving the family's position in the community is positively associated with couples' marital adjustment.

r = .10 P < .05

EH15-a. Wives' value of considering spouses' desires when making decisions is positively associated with husbands' marital adjustment.

r = .17 P < .005

EH15-b. Wives' value of considering spouses' desires when making decisions is positively associated with wives' marital adjustment.

r = .33 P < .001

EH15-c. Wives' value of considering spouses' desires when making decisions is positively associated with couples' marital adjustment.

r = .27 P < .001

EH16-a. Wives' value of believing in God is positively associated with husbands' marital adjustment.

r = .16 P < .005

EH16-b. Wives' value of believing in God is positively associated with wives' marital adjustment.

$r = .20$ $P < .001$

EH16-c. Wives' value of believing in God is positively associated with couples' marital adjustment.

$r = .20$ $P < .001$

EH17-a. Wives' value of having a time set aside for formalized worship is positively associated with wives' marital adjustment.

$r = .15$ $P < .01$

EH17-b. Wives' value of having a time set aside for formalized worship is positively associated with couples' marital adjustment.

$r = .13$ $P < .01$

EH18-a. Wives' value of having spouses share hopes, desires, and disappointments is positively associated with husbands' marital adjustment.

$r = .33$ $P < .001$

EH18-b. Wives' value of having spouses share hopes, desires, and disappointments is positively associated with wives' marital adjustment.

$r = .26$ $P < .001$

EH18-c. Wives' value of having spouses share hopes, desires, and disappointments is positively associated with couples' marital adjustment.

$r = .25$ $P < .001$

EH19-a. Wives' value of knowing what's going on around the world is positively associated with husbands' marital adjustment.

$r = .20$ $P < .001$

EH19-b. Wives' value of knowing what's going on around the world is positively associated with wives' marital adjustment.

$r = .12$ $P < .05$

EH19-c. Wives' value of knowing what's going on around the world is positively associated with couples' marital adjustment.

r = .18 P < .005

EH20-a. Wives' value of having a job that pays a lot of money is inversely associated with wives' marital adjustment.

r = -.12 P < .05

EH20-b. Wives' value of having a job that pays a lot of money is inversely associated with couples' marital adjustment.

r = -.11 P < .05

EH21-a. Wives' value of feeling that their jobs benefit their fellowmen is positively associated with husbands' marital adjustment.

r = .10 P < .05

EH21-b. Wives' value of feeling that their jobs benefit their fellowmen is positively associated with wives' marital adjustment.

r = .13 P < .01

EH21-c. Wives' value of feeling that their jobs benefit their fellowmen is positively associated with couples' marital adjustment.

r = .12 P < .05

EH22-a. Wives' value of making decisions independently is positively associated with wives' marital adjustment.

r = .11 P < .05

EH23-a. Wives' value of privacy is positively associated with husbands' marital adjustment.

r = .11 P < .05

EH23-b. Wives' value of privacy is positively associated with wives' marital adjustment.

r = .26 P < .001

EH23-c. Wives' value of privacy is positively associated with couples' marital adjustment.

r = .20 P < .001

EH24-a. Wives' value of remaining independent of relatives is positively associated with wives' marital adjustment.

$r = .11$ $P < .05$

EH24-b. Wives' value of remaining independent of relatives is positively associated with couples' marital adjustment.

$r = .10$ $P < .05$

Husbands' attitudes toward extramarital sex

EH25-a. Husbands' favorable attitudes toward extramarital sex are inversely associated with husbands' marital adjustment.

$r = -.27$ $P < .001$

EH25-b. Husbands' favorable attitudes toward extramarital sex are inversely associated with wives' marital adjustment.

$r = -.16$ $P < .007$

EH25-c. Husbands' favorable attitudes toward extramarital sex are inversely associated with couples' marital adjustment.

$r = -.24$ $P < .001$

Husbands' commitment to the marriage

EH26-a. Husbands' commitment to the marriage is positively associated with husbands' marital adjustment.

$r = .23$ $P < .001$

EH26-b. Husbands' commitment to the marriage is positively associated with wives' marital adjustment.

$r = .21$ $P < .001$

EH26-c. Husbands' commitment to the marriage is positively associated with couples' marital adjustment.

$r = .25$ $P < .001$

Wives' commitment to the marriage

EH27-a. Wives' commitment to the marriage is positively associated with husbands' marital adjustment.

r = .13 P < .01

EH27-b. Wives' commitment to the marriage is positively associated with wives' marital adjustment.

r = .31 P < .001

EH27-c. Wives' commitment to the marriage is positively associated with couples' marital adjustment.

r = .23 P < .001

Spouses' marital adjustment

EH28-a. Husbands' marital adjustment is positively associated with wives' marital adjustment.

r = .63 P < .001

Discussion of hypotheses generated from the data

Note that husbands' marital adjustment correlates .63 with wives' marital adjustment. This gives us some indication of the interaction effects of marriage.

Further evidence of the interaction effects within the marital dyad are shown in the correlations of husbands' favorable attitudes toward extramarital sex and wives' marital adjustment. Even though the variable wives' favorable attitudes toward extramarital sex was unrelated to the adjustment of either spouse, the wives' marital adjustment was related to husbands' attitudes toward extramarital sex.

Similar findings emerge from the hypotheses generated that focus upon

spouses' values. Notice the relationship between spouses on EH4a, EH4b, EH15a, and EH15b. Husbands' value of considering spouses' desires when making decisions is significantly related to husbands', wives', and couples' marital adjustment, as is that of the wives, but the relationship is strongest between wives' value of spouses' desires and husbands' marital adjustment. Why would it be more important for husbands than wives? One possible explanation is that wives do not expect it, and husbands do. That is, wives expect their husbands to consider their desires when making decisions but not as much as husbands expect and, in some instances, demand of their wives. Similarly, EH8a, EH8b, EH18a, and EH18b indicate that husbands' marital adjustment is more directly influenced by both their value and their wives' value of having a desire to have their spouses' share their hopes, desires, and disappointments than is marital adjustment of wives.

Since the zero-order correlations for the additional variables and marital adjustment are of considerably higher magnitude than the zero-order correlations obtained in testing the homogamy model, an exploratory case multiple regression model will be presented to see how much of the variance is explainable by values, commitment to the marriage, favorable attitudes toward extramarital sex, and spouses' marital adjustment.

Stepwise regression for husbands' marital adjustment with interaction variables

The regression analysis is presented in Tables 31 and 32. Almost 40 percent of the variance is explained by wives' marital adjustment. The

Table 31. Stepwise regression for husbands' marital adjustment with interaction variables

Variable entered	b*[a]	S.E.[b]	Partial F	Multiple R	Cumulative R^2	R^2 Change
Wives' marital adjustment	.5757	.0568	132.3118	.6290	.3956	.3956
Husbands' value of having spouses share hopes, desires, & disappointments	.1759	.2372	13.7188	.6615	.4376	.0420
Husbands' commitment to marriage	.1155	.3229	4.6245	.6738	.4540	.0164
Wives' value of knowing what's going on around the world	.1125	.3237	5.98313	.6825	.4658	.0117
Husbands' value of making decisions independently	.0917	.2346	4.02570	.6892	.4750	.0093
Wives' value of considering spouses' desires	-.0800	.37185	2.8251	.69273	.4799	.0050
Wives' value of improving family's position in community	.0753	.25304	2.6483	.69655	.4852	.0053

Husbands' value of children taking part in family decisions	.0766	.3229	2.6599	.7003	.4905	.0053
Husbands' value of privacy	,0508	.2516	1.2247	.7021	.4929	.0024
Wives' commitment to marriage	.0501	.2301	1.0922	.7036	.4951	.0022

[a]b* is the standardized coefficient for b, or the standardized beta weight.

[b]S.E. is the standard error for the regression.

second most important variable was husbands' value of having spouses share hopes, desires, and disappointments, which made a contribution of a little over 4 percent of the variance left unexplained by wives' marital adjustment. Third most important was husbands' commitment to the marriage, which made an additional contribution of a little over 1 1/2 percent of the variance left unexplained by the first two variables entered. Fourth to enter the equation was the variable, wives' value of knowing what's going on around the world. These four variables explain almost 47 percent of the variance in husbands' marital adjustment. Adding the 6 additional variables increases the explainable variance to around 50 percent, indicating that the first four variables provide the best prediction model for husbands' marital adjustment with interaction variables. Note, also, that the F values are small for some of the last variables entered.

Thus, we see that interaction variables do a much better job of predicting husbands' marital adjustment when we include wives' marital adjustment as an independent variable.

Table 32. Summary of analysis of variance for the regression model predicting husbands' marital adjustment with interaction variables

Analysis of variance	Degrees of freedom	Sum of squares	Mean square	F
Regression	10	58529.1928	5852.9193	24.9048****
Residual	254	59692.8977	235.0114	

****p <.001

Stepwise regression for wives' marital adjustment with interaction variables

The regression analysis for wives' marital adjustment with interaction variables is presented in Tables 33 and 34. Four variables explain over 50 percent of the variance in wives' marital adjustment. The first to enter the equation, husbands' marital adjustment, accounts for nearly 40 percent of the variance. Second to enter the equation, wives' commitment to the marriage, explains an additional 6 1/2 percent of the variance left unexplained by husbands' marital adjustment. Third in importance was wives' value of privacy, explaining an additional 3 percent of the variance left unexplained by the first two variables entered. The fourth variable entered, wives' value of considering spouses' desires, made an additional contribution of almost 2 percent of the variance left unexplained by the other three variables in the model. Little appreciable change in the R^2 after the first four variables indicates that these four variables provide the best prediction model for wives' marital adjustment with interaction variables. Note that none of the husbands' values, nor husbands' commitment, nor husbands' favorable attitude toward extramarital sex enters the equation for wives.

Stepwise regression for couples' marital adjustment with interaction variables

The regression model for couples' marital adjustment is presented in Tables 35 and 36. Note that, since couples' marital adjustment is the

Table 33. Stepwise regression for wives' marital adjustment with interaction variables

Variable entered	b*[a]	S.E.[b]	Partial F	Multiple R	Cumulative R^2	R^2 Change
Husbands' marital adjustment	.6290	.0422	172.1706	.6290	.3956	.3956
Wives' commitment to marriage	.2630	.3345	24.6904	.6781	.4605	.0649
Wives' value of privacy	.1855	.2277	17.0889	.7030	.5044	.0394
Wives' value of considering spouses' desires	.1525	.3317	9.7496	.7164	.5132	.0187
Wives' value of belief in God	.0693	.1918	2.4384	.7195	.5177	.00456
Wives' value of job paying a lot of money	-.0497	.20544	1.30134	.7212	.5202	.0024

[a] b* is the standardized coefficient for b, or the standardized beta weight.

[b] S.E. is the standard error for the regression.

Table 34. Summary of analysis of variance for the regression model predicting wives' marital adjustment with interaction variables

Analysis of variance	Degrees of freedom	Sum of squares	Mean square	F
Regression	7	47700.8678	6814.4097	39.801****
Residual	257	44001.8265	171.2133	

****p < .001

sum of the two spouses' marital adjustment, the variable spouses' marital adjustment cannot be entered as an independent variable.

The first variable entered was husbands' commitment to the marriage, making a contribution of a little over 10 percent to explaining the variance in couples' marital adjustment. Second to enter the equation, wives' value of considering spouses' desires, explains almost 5 percent of the variance left unexplained by husbands' commitment to the marriage. Third in importance, husbands' value of independence from relatives, makes an additional contribution of a little over 3 percent to explaining the variance left unexplained by the first two variables. Fourth to enter the model, husbands' value of job security, makes a contribution of just over 1 1/2 percent to explaining the unexplained portion of the variance. Fifth in importance, wives' value of having spouses share hopes, desires, and disappointments makes an additional contribution of just under 1 1/2 percent, as does the 6th variable entered, wives' value of awareness of what's going on in the world. The seventh variable to be entered, husbands' value of children taking part in family decisions, adds slightly over 1 percent to the variance already explained.

Table 35. Stepwise regression for couples' marital adjustment with interaction variables

Variable entered	b*[a]	S.E.[b]	Partial F	Multiple R	Cumulative R^2	R^2 Change
Husbands' commitment to marriage	.3247	.6516	31.0037	.3247	.1055	.1055
Wives' value of considering spouses' desires	.2228	.7552	14.9286	.3920	.1537	.0482
Husbands' value of independence from relatives	.1888	.4884	10.7673	.4327	.18721	.0335
Husbands' value of job security	-.1308	.5812	5.1384	.4505	.2030	.0158
Wives' value of having spouses share hopes, desires, and disappointments	.1251	.5278	4.5104	.4654	.2166	.0136
Wives' value of awareness of what's going on around the world	.1230	.6717	4.4791	.4805	.2309	.0143
Husbands' value of children taking part in family decisions	.10399	.6582	3.4009	.4909	.2409	.0100

Wives' value of belief in God	.0926	.4678	2.7188	.4989	.2489	.0079
Wives' value of fashionable clothes	-.0781	.5757	1.9002	.5044	.2545	.0056
Wives' commitment to the marriage	.0785	.8581	1.6143	.5091	.2591	.0047
Wives' value of making decisions independently	.0583	.5004	1.1271	.5123	.2625	.0024

[a]b* is the standardized coefficient for b, or the standardized beta weight.

[b]S.E. is the standard error for the regression.

Table 36. Summary of analysis of variance for the regression model predicting couples' marital adjustment with interaction variables

Analysis of variance	Degrees of freedom	Sum of squares	Mean square	F
Regression	11	89473.8311	8133.9847	8.1846***
Residual	253	251435.5123	993.81625	

***P < .005

Since the contributions of the 8th, 9th, 10th and 11th variables entered were minimal, the best equation for predicting couples' marital adjustment would include only the first seven variables entered.

Comments of comparison

The results of the three stepwise regression models illustrate the importance of interaction variables in marriage. Furthermore, the data show that wives' marital adjustment is explainable using fewer variables than needed to explain husbands' or couples' marital adjustment. Finally, note that the interaction variables are not the same in each model, indicating conceptual distinctions between the units of analysis: 1) couples, 2) husbands, and 3) wives. The importance of spouses' marital adjustment in the first two interaction models indicates that both spouses need to be taken into account in studying either single spouses or the marital dyad as a small group.

The results of the regression for couples' marital adjustment indicate that husbands' commitment to the marriage is of primary importance when studying the marital dyad. It is not clear why wives' commitment to the marriage does not make a significant contribution to explaining couples' marital adjustment. Since wives' commitment to the marriage clearly makes a significant contribution to explaining the variance in wives' marital adjustment, it might be suggested that the lack of significance in the couples' marital adjustment model is due to spuriousness. Husbands' commitment to the marriage correlates .37 with wives' commitment to the marriage. Husbands' commitment correlates slightly higher with couples' marital adjustment ($r = .25$) than does that of wives ($r = .23$), perhaps due to wives' commitment correlating lower with husbands' marital adjustment ($r = .13$) than does husbands' commitment with wives' marital adjustment ($r = .21$).

It is possible that wives' commitment to marriage is being artificially contaminated by cultural expectations for the wife to be the most committed to the marriage. The marriage literature further suggests that men are socialized to give primary commitments to their careers and that women are socialized to give primary commitments to their marriages. Wives' commitment to the marriage may take on increased importance in explaining the variance in couples' marital adjustment in the future as more and more women are socialized to be more career and individual fulfillment oriented.

The results of the stepwise regressions for husbands', wives', and couples' further suggest support for the contentions of past researchers

(e.g., Luckey, 1960a, 1960b, 1961, 1964; Stuckert, 1963; Pitsui, 1973) that the wives' inputs into the marriage influence the husbands' marital adjustment more than the husbands' inputs influence the marital adjustment of the wives. Note that the wives' value of considering spouses' desires was an important variable in predicting couples' marital adjustment as well as both husbands' and wives' marital adjustment.

The data from this exploratory analysis suggest that wives' inputs into marriage serve more to maintain the smooth functioning of the relationship than do the husbands' inputs. In final analysis, this data clearly suggest the need for further research to take into account multiple perspectives of the marriage when attempting to predict marital adjustment. Each of the three models, husbands' marital adjustment, wives' marital adjustment and couples' marital adjustment, provides a somewhat unique perspective and a different picture is given of the marriage by each.

Limitations and Conclusions

Before drawing any conclusions, we need to state some of the major limitations of this research. The limitations will be noted under: 1) conceptual limitations and 2) methodological limitations.

Conceptual limitations

First, it is clear that marital adjustment is much more complex than our conceptual model permitted. Similarly, the independent variables

used in testing the homogamy theory do not represent an exhaustive list of all theoretically meaningful variables, but rather a purposively selected set of independent variables.

Methodological limitations

Two major types of methodological limitations need to be pointed out before drawing any conclusions: 1) the limitations imposed by the research design and 2) the limitations related to the type of measures and analyses used.

Research design limitations The use of retrospective and cross-sectional data from interviews and questionnaires can be viewed as one picture of a complex phenomena at a single point in time; thus, it severely restricts the kinds of conclusions that can be drawn. Questionnaire data is a good method for gathering survey types of information, which was the purpose of this data collection.

Measurement limitations The measures used to tap marital adjustment need to be refined. The reliability estimates are minimally acceptable for individuals' marital adjustment, but they need to be improved. Inferences about the data should be couched with caution since measurement error could be influencing the data.

Another measurement problem with regard to the concept is the use of collective indicants of marital adjustment. The collective indicant used in this research is merely an exploratory attempt to examine the effects of homogamy on the dyadic group as well as on individual spouses.

Reliability and validity checks need to be made on any measures used for either individual spouse's adjustment or for group adjustment. The issues of social desirability and conventionality need to be dealt with systemmatically. In this research, some checks were made, but the use of established measures of social desirability and conventionality were not included.

The scale developed to measure values needs to be reexamined and refined by adding items and possibly developing unique dimensions. Similarly, each additional variable introduced in Chapter IV needs to be examined and refined by using measurement criteria.

Finally, the statistical techniques used in data analysis should be considered with regard to violating measurement assumptions. The dependent variable, marital adjustment, and the independent variables of value similarity, church attendance similarity, spouses' parents' marital happiness similarity, age similarity, educational similarity, values, commitment to marriage, and favorable attitudes toward extramarital sex, all approach interval level measures. The variables, spouses of the same religion now and spouses of same religion before marriage, however, at best approach ordinal level measures. Therefore, caution should be exercised when interpreting the correlations between these variables and the dependent variables. The stepwise regression models should be viewed as exploratory and not confirmatory.

Conclusions

In light of the limitations noted, we can draw the following conclusions. First, homogamy theory as tested by the EHs in this research shows that religious similarity and value similarity have a slight influence upon husbands', wives', and couples' marital adjustment. Similarity of spouses' parents' marital happiness also has a slight influence upon wives' and couples' marital adjustment. The R^2 of .067 for husbands' marital adjustment means that homogamy accounts for about 7 percent of the explainable variance in husbands' marital adjustment. The R^2 of .075 for wives and the R^2 of .08 for couples, indicate that 8 percent of the variance in the marital adjustment of wives and couples is explainable by homogamous variables.

The exploratory results of model building with additional variables indicates that interaction variables are better predictors of marital adjustment of husbands, wives, and couples than are homogamous variables. Thus, it might be well for future research to focus upon the interactional aspects of marriage.

Suggestions for Further Research

Several suggestions for further research will be pointed out. First, a few comments about further research focusing upon the homogamy theory of marital adjustment. A longitudinal study measuring the degree of actual and perceived similarity before marriage as well as at several intervals after marriage is needed before we can adequately assess the extent to which

homogamy influences marital adjustment. This type of design could shed light on the question of whether couples who are similar in values and orientations to life have higher marital adjustments as a result of pre-marital socialization experiences or as a result of interaction after marriage or some combination of the two.

Second, a few suggestions for studying marital adjustment in general. Conceptual refinements of marital adjustment are desperately needed. The writer feels that viewing marriage as a process rather than a product would be a helpful start in the refinement of the concept of marital adjustment. A synthesis definition was offered in Chapter II that might be a useful springboard to begin conceptual refinements. Coupled with the conceptual confusion surrounding marital adjustment is the equally inadequate measurement of the concept. We need to refine our operational measures of marital adjustment so that we have less measurement error and more valid and reliable measures that will permit sophisticated statistical analysis. We also need to develop collective indicants and scales that measure the couples' adjustment and family functioning as well as individual spouse's perceptions of adjustment.

Third, we need to go beyond testing two-variable hypotheses and focus upon multivariate relationships, building models that can be linked to theoretically relevant areas of interest. More use should be made of at-tempting to use borrowed theory, such as balance theory, as was done in this research.

Fourth, perceptual and interactional variables should be included in replication studies. A few interaction variables were suggested by the data and hypotheses were proposed for testing in further research.

Finally, researchers should always be searching for new variables that will help us build a theory to explain and predict marital adjustment.

CHAPTER VI: SUMMARY

The purpose of this research was to gain a better understanding of the institution of marriage by studying a neglected aspect of marital adjustment. The units of analysis were marital adjustment of husbands, wives, and couples. The specific focus was on the relationship between selected homogamous factors and marital adjustment of husbands, wives, and couples. The unique contribution that this dissertation makes is to examine the effects of value similarity in addition to social similarity in testing the homogamy theory of marital adjustment.

It was proposed in the theory chapter that marital adjustment may be facilitated by similarity of social experiences and values. A general level hypothesis was developed that: in a dyadic relationship, the greater the similarity of social experiences and orientations to life, the greater the group cohesion and adjustment to the dyadic relationship. Two more specific sub-general level hypotheses were derived:

SGH 1. In the marital dyad, the greater the similarity of social experiences, the greater the adjustment to the marriage.

SGH 2. In the marital dyad, the greater the similarity of orientations to life, the greater the adjustment to the marriage.

Consistency theory was used as a framework for analysis, and the effects of homogamy on marital adjustment were tested by 24 EHs linked to 15 SH.

The data for analyzing the 24 EHs are based upon the responses of both husbands and wives from a probability sample of 265 married pairs living in the Ames community in March of 1971.

The Locke-Wallace Short Marital Adjustment Test was used to tap the dependent variable of marital adjustment. A 21-item scale developed by the author was used to measure values, and value similarity was operationally defined as the degree of spousal differences on values as measured by the 21-item scale. Single-item indicants of educational similarity, age similarity, and spouses' parents' marital happiness and four single-item indicants of religious similarity were used in testing the 24 EHs. Zero-order correlations and stepwise regression analyses were used to test the EHs.

The findings show weak support for the general level hypothesis. It was concluded that homogamous factors do have a slight effect upon marital adjustment. Additional variables were introduced into the analysis, and 69 two-variable hypotheses were generated from the data. Regression analysis of interactional variables suggests that further research might fruitfully test these interactional hypotheses.

The limitations of the research were noted, and conclusions were drawn. Finally, suggestions were made for further research.

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author wishes to express his sincere appreciation for the guidance, encouragement, and assistance given by his major professor, Dr. Dwight G. Dean, throughout the author's graduate program. The contributions of Dr. Richard D. Warren to the development of the author's research skills and for extensive assistance and consultation on the statistical and scaling methods used in the analysis are gratefully acknowledged.

The author expresses his appreciation to Dr. Mary E. Heltsley for continual guidance and encouragement and for helping the author become integrated into the National Council on Family Relations and the Groves Conference on Marriage and the Family. Appreciation also is extended to Drs. Gordon L. Bultena and Ronald C. Powers who have served on the author's program of studies committee.

In addition, the author wishes to express his appreciation for the aid rendered by Dr. Graham B. Spanier, a research colleague and friend, at all stages of this research.

Appreciation also is extended to Helen Dunfield and Betts Sterrett for typing the manuscript, to Leslie Haire for helping proof and collate the final draft, to the author's colleagues at Denison University for providing encouragement and support, and to the students who helped in the data collection and coding.

Finally, the author would like to express his deepest appreciation for the love of his wife, Anna, who has given unselfishly of herself in so many ways throughout our marriage.

APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE WITH SCORING CODES

Iowa Family Research Center
Public Opinion Survey
Ames, Iowa
1971

This household has been chosen from a random sample of households in the Ames Community. In this study we are trying to determine the opinions and characteristics of married couples. In this matter, the researchers are completely neutral. We would like to assure you that any information will be anonymous and will remain completely confidential. There are separate questionnaire forms for husband and wife. It is necessary that husbands and wives neither discuss nor compare answers given before or during completion of the questionnaire. If you would be interested in the results of this study, please print your name and address on the enclosed 3 by 5 card. This questionnaire should only take you a few minutes to complete. It is necessary that all questions be answered. Please do not omit a question unless it does not apply.

Your cooperation is most appreciated. Remember, your name will never be identified with the information in the questionnaire. If you have any questions about this study, please contact one of the project directors:

Charles Cole, M.A.
292-1478

Graham B. Spanier, M.S.
233-1388

1. What is your sex? 1 male 2 female

2. What is your age? (In years and months) _____ Years _____ Months

3. What was the month and year of your marriage? _____ Month _____ Year

4. About how many months did you and your spouse know each other before you were married? No. of months

5. How many months was your period of engagement? No. of months

6. What is the highest level of schooling which you have attained thus far?

1	Grade School
2	Some high school
3	High School completed
4	Trade or other schooling
5	One year of college
6	2 years of college
7	3 years of college
8	B.S. degree or equivalent
9	Some graduate work
10	Received a graduate degree

7. How many children do you presently have? _____

8. If you have children, what is the age of the oldest child? (In years and months)
_____ Years _____ Months

9. What is your religious denomination, if any? _____

10. Are you and your spouse of the same religion? 1 Yes 0 No

11. Were you and your spouse of the same religion before you were married? 1 Yes 0 No

12. About how often do you usually attend church services or activities?

5	Once a week or more
4	At least once a month
3	Occasionally during the year
2	Rarely
1	Never

13. Would you say your parents' marriage was:

5 Very happy
4 Happy
3 About average
2 Fairly unhappy
1 Very unhappy

14. How large was the town in which you were raised?

1 1,000 or less
2 1,000 to 5,000
3 5,000 to 20,000
4 20,000 to 50,000
5 50,000 to 250,000
6 250,000 or more

15. How long have you lived in Ames? No. of years & months

16. How long have you lived in your present neighborhood? No. of years & months

17. Before moving to Ames, what state did you live in? _____

18. In your family, what is the husband's occupation? (Be specific)
North-Hatt Scale Occupational Prestige Rank
What is his title? _____
Please describe his work if above is not self-explanatory.
_____

19. In your family, what is the wife's occupation? (Be specific)
North-Hatt Scale Occupational Prestige Rank
What is her title?
_____
Please describe her work if above is not self-explanatory.
_____

20. If you are a student, what is your cumulative grade point? _____

21. Which category most closely approximates the combined present yearly income of you and your spouse?

1 Less than 3,000
2 3,000 to 5,999
3 6,000 to 8,999
4 9,000 to 11,999
5 12,000 to 14,999
6 15,000 to 19,999
7 20,000 to 24,999
8 25,000 to 49,999
9 50,000 and above

VALUES SCALE SCORING KEY

INSTRUCTIONS:

Circle Agree --if you agree with the statement.

Disagree --if you disagree with the statement.

THEN

Circle the number (1,2,3,4, or 5, with 5 being the strongest) indicating how strongly you agree or disagree with the statement

If you are neutral on the statement,
Circle both Agree
1 2 3 4 5
Disagree

1.	It is important for me to be close friends with the people in the neighborhood.	A / D 1 2 3 4 5	(+)[a]
2.	It is important for me to be actively involved in local political activities.	A / D 1 2 3 4 5	(+)
3.	It is important for my clothes to be fashionable.	A / D 1 2 3 4 5	(+)
4.	It is important for me to improve my position in the community.	A / D 1 2 3 4 5	(+)
5.	It is important for me to pay cash for what I buy.	A / D 1 2 3 4 5	(+)
6.	It is important for me to have furniture that looks good.	A / D 1 2 3 4 5	(+)
7.	It is important to consider my spouse's desires when I make decisions about what I want to do with my life.	A / D 1 2 3 4 5	(+)
8.	It is important for children to have a part in family decisions.	A / D 1 2 3 4 5	(+)

---

[a]Items were scored on a 16-point continuum, with positive items scored as: A5=16, A4=13, A3=11, A2=10, A1=9, A/D=8, D1=7, D2=6, D3=5, D4=3, D5=0, and negative items were scored as: A5=0, A4=3, A3=5, A2=6, A1=7, A/D=8, D1=9, D2=10, D3=11, D4=13, D5=16.

9.	It is important for me to make my own decisions independent of other people's influence.	A / D 1 2 3 4 5 (-)
10.	It is important for me to believe in God.	A / D 1 2 3 4 5 (+)
11.	It is important for me to have a time set aside for formalized worship.	A / D 1 2 3 4 5 (+)
12.	It is important for me to have some things I can keep private.	A / D 1 2 3 4 5 (-)
13.	It is important for me to have my spouse share (his/her) every hope, desire, and disappointment.	A / D 1 2 3 4 5 (+)
14.	It is important for me to gain more from a relationship than I put into it.	A / D 1 2 3 4 5 (-)
15.	It is important for me to be completely independent of my relatives.	A / D 1 2 3 4 5 (-)
16.	It is important to me to have my own biological children.	A / D 1 2 3 4 5 (+)
17.	It is important to me to be able to help my parents financially in their old age if they need help.	A / D 1 2 3 4 5 (+)
18.	It is important to me to be constantly reading and learning new and different things.	A / D 1 2 3 4 5 (+)
19.	It is important to me to be aware of what's happening in other parts of the world.	A / D 1 2 3 4 5 (+)
20.	It is important to me to have a job that pays a lot of money.	A / D 1 2 3 4 5 (+)
21.	It is important for me to feel my job is benefiting my fellowman.	A / D 1 2 3 4 5 (+)
22.	It is important for me to have a job that is prestigious.	A / D 1 2 3 4 5 (+)
23.	It is important for me to work in a job in which I feel very secure.	A / D 1 2 3 4 5 (+)
24.	It is important for me to work in a job which utilizes talents with which I have been trained.	A / D 1 2 3 4 5 (+)

MARITAL COMMITMENT INDEX SCORING KEY

1.	I want desperately for my marriage to succeed, and <u>would go to almost any length</u> to see that it does.	A 1 2 3 4 5 D	(+)[b]
2.	I want very much for my marriage to succeed, and <u>will do all I can</u> to see that it does.	A 1 2 3 4 5 D	(+)
3.	I want very much for my marriage to succeed, and <u>will do my fair share</u> to see that it does.	A 1 2 3 4 5 D	(+)
4.	It would be nice if my marriage succeeded, but I <u>can't do much more than I am doing now</u> to help it succeed.	A 1 2 3 4 5 D	(-)
5.	It would be nice if it succeeded, but <u>I refuse to do any more than I am doing now</u> to keep the marriage going.	A 1 2 3 4 5 D	(-)
6.	My marriage can never succeed, and <u>there is no more that I can do</u> to keep it going.	A 1 2 3 4 5 D	(-)

SEXUAL FIDELITY SCALE SCORING KEY

PLEASE RESPOND TO THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS:

1.	Wife-swapping is wrong.	A 1 2 3 4 5 D	(-)[c]
2.	Wife-swapping can have positive effects upon husband-wife relationships.	A 1 2 3 4 5 D	(+)

---

[b] Items coded positively (+) indicate commitment is valued; items coded negatively (-) indicate commitment is not valued. The items were scored on a 16-point continuum with positive items scored as: A5=16, A4=13, A3=11, A2=10, A1=9, A/D=8, D1=7, D2=6, D3=5, D4=3, D5=0, and negative items scored as: A5=0, A4=3, A3=5, A2=6, A1=7, A/D=8, D1=9, D2=10, D3=11, D4=13, D5=16.

[c] Items coded negatively (-) indicate high tolerance of infidelity; items coded positively (+) indicate low tolerance of infidelity. The items were scored on a 16-point continuum with positive items scored as: A5=16, A4=13, A3=11, A2=10, A1=9, A/D=8, D1=7, D2=6, D3=5, D4=3, D5=0, and negative items scored as: A5=0, A4=3, A3=5, A2=6, A1=7, A/D=8, D1=9, D2=10, D3=11, D4=13, D5=16.

3.	I would never tolerate my spouse having sexual relations with another person.	A D 1 2 3 4 5	(-)
4.	It bothers me that some people are unfaithful to their spouses.	A D 1 2 3 4 5	(-)
5.	I feel having sexual relations with several partners would make me appreciate my spouse more.	A D 1 2 3 4 5	(+)
6.	It is better for the husband-wife relationship if extra-marital sexual relationships are openly discussed.	A D 1 2 3 4 5	(+)
7.	I could not live with myself if I were to have sexual relations with a person other than my spouse.	A D 1 2 3 4 5	(-)

MARITAL ADJUSTMENT SCALE SCORING KEY[a]

INSTRUCTIONS:
State the approximate extent of agreement or disagreement between you and your spouse on the following items. Please check each column.

	Always Agree	Almost Always Agree	Occasionally Agree	Frequently Disagree	Almost Always Disagree	Always Disagree
1. Handling family finances	5	4	3	2	1	0
2. Matters of recreation	5	4	3	2	1	0
3. Demonstrations of affection	8	6	4	2	1	0
4. Friends	5	4	3	2	1	0
5. Sex relations	15	12	9	4	1	0
6. Conventionality (right, good, or proper conduct)	5	4	3	2	1	0
7. Philosophy of life	5	4	3	2	1	0
8. Ways of dealing with in-laws	5	4	3	2	1	0

9. When disagreements arise, they usually result in:
   - 0 Husband giving in
   - 2 Wife giving in
   - 10 Agreement by mutual give and take

10. Do you and your mate engage in outside interests together?
   - 10 All of them
   - 8 Some of them
   - 3 Very few of them
   - 0 None of them

11. In leisure time do you generally prefer:
   - ___ to be on the go (Agree=3)
   - ___ to stay at home (Agree=10)

   Does your mate generally prefer:
   - ___ to be on the go (Disagree=2)
   - ___ to stay at home

---

[a] Weightings followed the original scale weights used by Locke and Wallace (1959).

12. Do you ever wish you had not married?

0	Frequently
3	Occasionally
8	Rarely
15	Never

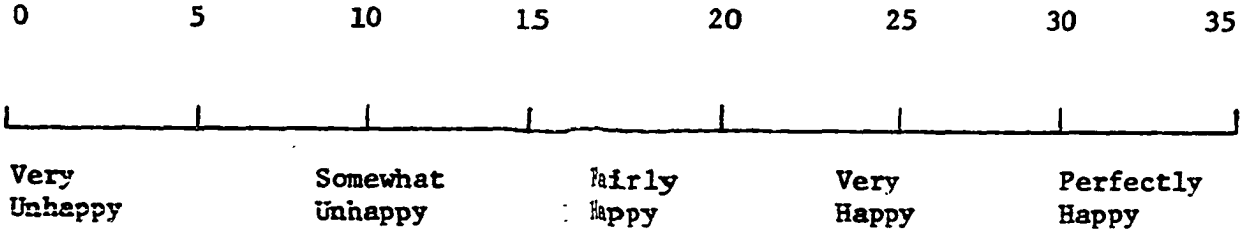
13. If you had your life to live over, do you think you would:

15	Marry the same person
0	Marry a different person
1	Not marry at all

14. Do you confide in your mate?

0	Almost never
2	Rarely
10	In most things
10	In everything

15. Put an "X" on the line below at the position which best describes the degree of happiness, everything considered of your present marriage.



Thank you for participating in this research project. We appreciate your cooperation. Your responses will better enable us to have a more complete understanding of the changing American family.

APPENDIX B: INSTRUCTIONS AND ORIGINAL ITEMS OF FAMILY VALUES SCALE PRESENTED TO JUDGES

INSTRUCTIONS TO JUDGES

This scale is designed to measure the degree to which individual spouses value the family. The individual on the high end of the continuum places great importance on the family. The individual at the low end of the continuum places low importance on the family.

For each of the following items, assume that the individual agrees with the statement. In which of the eleven categories on the Family Values continuum would you place him? You are not to indicate your own preference or feelings about the statement, but to indicate your judgement about an individual who would agree with the item.

Low Family Value					Neutral				High Family Value	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11

Not all of the statements are "polar" in that they all do not indicate an extreme orientation at one end or the other. Some statements probably will fall between the extreme positions and the neutral point 6. Some may even be judged to be completely neutral. In each case, read the item, think about the individual who would agree with the statement and place your interpretation in the form of a number below the statement.

THE ORIGINAL SET OF 60 ITEMS WITH THE MEAN SCORE ASSIGNED BY THE PANEL OF JUDGES

Item no.	Judges $\bar{X}$	
1	3.2*	It is not important for me to attend group functions.
2	7.2	It is important for me to be close friends with the people in the neighborhood.

*Denotes items eliminated on the basis of the judges' evaluations.

Item no.	Judges $\bar{X}$	
3	6.4	It is important for me to be actively involved in local political activities.
4	5.0**	It is important for me to guide my conduct in accord with the groups I belong to.
5	6.0	It is important for my clothes to be fashionable.
6	7.8*	It is important for me to get recognition for what I do.
7	9.3	It is important for me to improve my position in the community.
8	4.1*	Being in a position to mold and direct others' lives is of little importance to me.
9	8.6	It is important to me to pay cash for what I buy.
10	6.0**	It is important for me to have a lot of money and live a little higher than most people.
11	4.5*	It is important for me to not get involved in community projects.
12	7.0	It is important to me to have furniture that looks good.
13	2.4**	It is important for children to not be allowed to talk back to adults.
14	3.9*	It is important for me to blow off steam by taking it out on those closest to me.
15	10.5	It is important to consider my spouse's desires when I make decisions about what to do with my life.
16	8.0	It is important for children to have a part in family decisions.
17	5.2	It is important for me to make my own decisions independent of other people's influence.

**Denotes those items eliminated on the basis of the findings of the pretest.

Item no	Judges $\bar{X}$	
18	2.9**	It is not very important for me to be economically stable.
19	4.8*	It is important for me to not have any responsibilities or routines to follow.
20	7.5*	It is important for me to be an innovator.
21	3.9*	It is important for me to be constantly developing new ways of approaching life.
22	4.0**	It is important for me to try new and different things all the time.
23	9.0	It is important for me to believe in God.
24	4.9**	It is of little importance to me to attend church.
25	7.0	It is important for me to have a time set aside for formalized worship.
26	6.0**	It is important to me to encourage others to live by the Bible.
27	3.9*	It is important for me to be free of all organized religion.
28	6.0**	It is important to me to treat man as a measure of good things.
29	4.9*	It is important not to teach religion to children so they won't get other people's hang-ups.
30	5.9	It is important for me to have some things that I can keep private.
31	10.0	It is important for me to have my spouse share (his/her) every hope, desire, and disappointment.
32	8.6**	It is important to me to be able to satisfy my spouse's every need.
33	2.3**	Children are of little value to me; they just get in the way.

Item no.	Judges $\bar{X}$	
34	7.9*	It is important for me to be nice to people even if I really don't think they are right.
35	8.4*	It is important to me to be considerate of my own parents.
36	2.0	It is important for me to gain more from a relationship than I put into it.
37	5.0	It is important for me to be completely independent of my relatives.
38	9.5*	It is important to me to maintain close ties to my relatives.
39	8.9	It is important to me to have my own biological children.
40	10.0	It is important to me to be able to help my parents financially in their old age if they need help.
41	7.0**	I would just as soon have my inlaws live with me as my own parents.
42	6.1**	It is important for me to live in an orderly environment.
43	5.9*	It is important for me to have an interest in culturally rewarding activities.
44	6.6**	It is important for me to know what's going on in the political world.
45	6.9	It is important for me to be constantly reading and learning new and different things.
46	6.1**	It is important for me to enjoy reading books, listening to music learning to appreciate the finer things of life.
47	6.2**	It is important for me to maintain an active interest in doing things scholarly.
48	2.9*	Staying up with world events is a waste of time for me.
49	6.3	It is important to me to be aware of what's happening in other parts of the world.

Item no.	Judges $\bar{X}$	
50	4.0*	It is important to me to be able to get the best of those I do business with.
51	6.0	It is important to me to have a job that pays a lot of money.
52	8.9	It is important for me to feel my job is benefiting my fellowman.
53	6.0*	It is important for the wife to stay home and take care of the children when they are small.
54	7.0	It is important for me to have a job that is prestigious.
55	4.1*	It is important for me to try several types of jobs and not stay in one kind of work for too long.
56	8.0	It is important for me to work in a job in which I feel very secure.
57	8.3**	It is important for my spouse to know what I'm doing.
58	7.1	It is important for me to work in a job which utilizes talents with which I have been trained.
59	3.3	It is important for me to have ample free time away from work and the family.
60	2.1**	It is important for spouses to have separate vacations.

APPENDIX C: INTER-ITEM CORRELATIONS FOR MARITAL ADJUSTMENT SCALE, VALUES SCALE, MARITAL COMMITMENT SCALE, AND SEXUAL FIDELITY SCALE

Table 37. Intercorrelations of marital adjustment scale items: Husbands

Item no.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1-Finances	1.0	.37	.35	.16	.42	.33	.37	.26	.14	.18	.08
2-Recreation		1.0	.34	.28	.36	.43	.51	.28	1.09	.36	.16
3-Affection			1.0	.26	.55	.46	.39	.41	.20	.24	.15
4-Friends				1.0	.35	.36	.42	.43	.04	.09	.09
5-Sex Relations					1.0	.48	.45	.40	.14	.16	.17
6-Conventionality						1.0	.66	.54	.06	.28	.15
7-Philosophy of life							1.0	.50	.07	.25	.14
8-In-laws								1.0	.09	.22	.15
9-Disagreements									1.0	.21	.09
10-Interest										1.0	.12
11-Leisure											1.0
12-Wishes											
13-Marry again											
14-Confide in mate											
15-Happiness											
Composite score											

12	13	14	15	Composite	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
.24	.19	.12	.29	.44	3.9	0.7
.21	.20	.05	.36	.48	3.7	0.8
.26	.22	.27	.29	.55	5.5	1.6
.16	.13	.18	.19	.34	3.9	0.7
.25	.31	.28	.34	.62	11.3	3.1
.35	.37	.25	.29	.58	4.0	0.8
.38	.36	.20	.31	.58	3.8	0.8
.35	.24	.26	.27	.51	3.8	0.9
.13	.04	.22	.21	.38	8.5	3.3
.25	.20	.20	.15	.47	7.6	2.0
.24	.14	.13	.11	.40	5.4	3.7
1.0	.40	.23	.36	.66	9.6	4.7
	1.0	.22	.37	.63	13.1	4.9
		1.0	.26	.44	9.7	1.7
			1.0	.75	26.4	7.2
				1.0	120.4	21.2

Table 38. Intercorrelations of marital adjustment scale items: Wives

Item no.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1-Finances	1.0	.37	.25	.13	.27	.21	.20	.18	.10	.21	.02
2-Recreation		1.0	.21	.26	.11	.25	.20	.07	.17	.33	-.01
3-Affection			1.0	.31	.44	.22	.22	.15	.07	.16	.02
4-Friends				1.0	.32	.40	.33	.31	.13	.15	.08
5-Sex Relations					1.0	.29	.31	.40	.17	.13	.05
6-Conventionality						1.0	.39	.28	.15	.13	.08
7-Philosophy of life							1.0	.47	.13	.26	.14
8-In-laws								1.0	.05	.22	.14
9-Disagreements									1.0	.18	.07
10-Interests										1.0	.03
11-Leisure											1.0
12-Wishes											
13-Marry again											
14-Confide in mate											
15-Happiness											
Composite score											

12	13	14	15	Composite	$\overline{X}$	S.D.
.20	.11	.06	.35	.39	3.9	0.8
.11	.04	-.01	.30	.31	3.8	0.7
.25	.23	.19	.37	.48	5.6	1.5
.23	.22	.08	.28	.43	4.0	2.7
.28	.29	.17	.26	.54	11.5	2.7
.23	.20	.11	.26	.43	4.0	0.8
.34	.35	.20	.30	.53	3.9	0.8
.29	.39	.28	.23	.49	3.8	0.9
.13	.04	.07	.25	.41	8.3	3.4
.19	.17	.27	.30	.45	7.5	2.1
.20	.13	.08	.08	.36	6.3	3.8
1.0	.29	.20	.37	.67	9.8	4.8
	1.0	.21	.31	.57	13.8	3.9
		1.0	.22	.38	9.7	1.4
			1.0	.75	26.6	6.3
				1.0	122.8	18.6

Table 39. Intercorrelations of value scale items: Total sample

Item no.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1-Neighborhood										
2-Political	.40									
3-Fashionable	.12	.06								
4-Community	.28	.26	.43							
5-Pay cash	.17	.06	.16	.07						
6-Furniture	.16	.07	.50	.31	.20					
7-Consider spouse's desires	.14	.08	.11	.10	.17	.11				
8-Family decisions	.14	.04	.07	.02	.05	.07	.24			
9-God	.18	.11	.12	.07	.19	.15	.14	.12		
10-Worship	.27	.23	.11	.13	.16	.12	.09	.02	.60	
11-Have spouse share	.10	.04	.16	.18	.27	.13	.28	.07	.17	.23
12-Gain more	.13	.02	-.04	.14	.19	-.02	.13	.06	.01	.09
13-Own children	.12	.01	.14	.12	.06	.29	.12	.12	.21	.29
14-Help parents	.04	.07	.10	.15	.07	.14	.15	.16	.12	.03
15-Learning	.04	.12	.06	.12	.06	-.01	.08	.15	.05	.05
16-Aware	.08	.17	.07	.05	.04	.07	.18	.21	.06	.06
17-Money	.05	.02	.16	.25	.11	.28	.05	.02	.05	.08
18-Fellowman	.18	.14	.11	.21	.11	.11	.16	.22	.27	.24
19-Prestigious	.09	.05	.27	.36	.13	.26	.04	.12	.01	.11
20-Secure	.02	.13	.23	.29	.08	.25	.05	.10	.09	.04
21-Talents	.17	.01	.27	.24	.03	.17	.22	.12	.10	.02
Composite (total)	.50	.31	.51	.52	.37	.54	.40	.28	.48	.49

11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
											7.4	3.6
											6.3	3.6
											8.8	3.5
											8.0	3.9
											9.4	4.4
											9.8	3.3
											13.6	2.7
											11.7	3.0
											12.0	4.9
											8.2	4.8
											9.9	4.1
.18											9.6	4.3
.27	.12										11.7	3.3
.13	.05	.18									11.9	3.1
.04	.14	.03	.14								11.8	2.9
.04	.02	.02	.14	.54							11.7	2.0
,04	.05	.09	-.04	.03	-.02						7.8	3.6
.16	.19	.19	.20	.22	.30	.10					11.6	3.3
.15	-.04	.10	.01	-.03	-.04	.56	-.01				7.1	3.4
.18	.20	.12	.26	.09	.07	.17	.21	.19			10.6	3.4
.11	.05	.17	.09	.15	.10	.13	.31	.07	.37		11.6	3.5
.50	.20	.41	.29	.26	.25	.37	.38	.40	.43	.46	205.5	32.5

Table 40. Intercorrelations of marital commitment scale items: Husbands

Item no.	1	2	3	4	5	6	Composite	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
1-go to any length	1.0	.48	.34	.02	-.09	.15	.65	11.2	4.4
2-do all I can		1.0	.34	.13	-.06	.25	.66	13.7	3.2
3-do my fair share			1.0	.11	.11	.34	.68	12.9	4.2
4-can't do much more[a]				1.0	.08	.40	.52	9.5	4.1
5-refuse to do any more[a]					1.0	.03	.56	12.6	4.3
6-can never succeed						1.0	.66	13.8	3.7
Composite							1.0	41.6	12.4

[a]Items 4 and 5 were not included in the composite, and reliability estimates were based upon the composite without items 4 and 5.

Table 41. Intercorrelations of marital commitment scale items: Wives

Item no.	1	2	3	4	5	6	Composite	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
1-go to any length	1.0	.24	.25	.08	-.04	.05	.58	11.6	4.3
2-do all I can		1.0	.25	.23	-.03	.38	.62	14.8	2.6
3-do my fair share			1.0	-.02	-.03	.21	.56	13.4	3.8
4-can't do much more[a]				1.0	.16	.29	.59	10.2	4.5
5-refuse to do any more[a]					1.0	.32	.59	13.2	4.1
6-can never succeed						1.0	.63	14.1	3.6
Composite							1.0	53.9	11.2

[a]Items 4 and 5 were not included in the composite, and reliability estimates were based upon the composite without items 4 and 5.

Table 42. Intercorrelations of sexual fidelity scale items: Husbands

Item no.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Composite	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
1-Wrong	1.0	.26	.50	.43	.46	.13	.49	.64	4.2	4.6
2-Positive[a]		1.0	.17	.08	.16	.01	.04	.35	6.8	5.2
3-Tolerate			1.0	.38	.46	.10	.55	.69	3.9	4.5
4-Unfaithfulness				1.0	.27	.04	.46	.63	6.6	4.5
5-Appreciate					1.0	.14	.41	.63	3.7	4.2
6-Discussed[a]						1.0	-.01	.27	8.8	4.6
7-Live with							1.0	.73	6.9	5.4
Composite								1.0	25.2	10.1

[a]Items 2 and 6 were dropped before computing composite and estimates of reliability.

Table 43. Intercorrelations of sexual fidelity scale items: Wives

Item no.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Composite	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
1-Wrong	1.0	.09	.40	.37	.30	.06	.41	.62	2.4	3.8
2-Positive[a]		1.0	.11	-.01	.09	.11	-.01	.20	6.3	6.0
3-Tolerate			1.0	.48	.38	.13	.54	.70	3.7	4.5
4-Unfaithfulness				1.0	.31	.04	.45	.64	4.6	4.2
5-Appreciate					1.0	.07	.39	.54	1.9	3.7
6-Discussed[a]						1.0	.09	.68	8.3	4.9
7-Live with							1.0	.68	4.3	4.8
Composite								1.0	17.1	8.2

[a]Items 2 and 6 were dropped before computing composite and estimates of reliability.

APPENDIX D: INTER-VARIABLE CORRELATION MATRIX AND SIGNIFICANT SOCIAL CORRELATES OF MARITAL ADJUSTMENT NOT REPORTED IN PREVIOUS SECTIONS

Table 44. Inter-variable correlation matrix

Variable no.	X_1	X_2	X_3	X_4	X_5	X_6	X_7	X_8	X_9	X_{10}
X_1 Same religion before marriage	1.0	.67	.65	.60	.05	-.08	-.30	-.07	.04	.02
X_2 Same religion now		1.0	.67	-.78	.04	-.05	-.19	-.11	.07	.01
X_3 Church attendance difference			1.0	.30	.08	.03	.10	.12	-.12	-.17
X_4 Religious orthodoxy difference				1.0	.02	.01	.09	.05	-.01	-.01
X_5 Educational difference					1.0	.09	.07	-.04	.02	.09
X_6 Age difference						1.0	.03	.08	.05	.02
X_7 Parents' marriage happiness difference							1.0	.10	-.09	-.14
X_8 Value difference								1.0	-.29	.07
X_9 Husbands' values									1.0	.44
X_{10} Wives' values										1.0
X_{11} Husbands' commitment										
X_{12} Wives' commitment										
X_{13} Husbands' sexual fidelity attitudes										
X_{14} Wives' sexual fidelity attitudes										
Y_1 Husbands' marital adjustment										
Y_2 Wives' marital adjustment										
Y_3 Couples' marital adjustment										

X_{11}	X_{12}	X_{13}	X_{14}	Y_1	Y_2	Y_3	Mean	S.D.
.02	.07	-.18	-.16	.02	.07	.04	0.5	0.5
.01	.10	-.16	-.15	.16	.10	.14	0.8	0.5
-.11	-.04	-.19	-.17	-.18	.19	.20	0.3	0.6
-.10	-.07	-.15	-.11	.04	-.08	-.05	1.1	4.7
-.06	.12	-.07	-.01	.04	-.06	-.03	2.0	1.7
-.16	-.21	-.20	-.17	.06	-.06	-.01	2.9	5.6
.01	-.08	-.17	-.24	-.02	-.12	-.07	0.9	0.9
-.07	-.06	.15	.06	-.12	-.14	-.14	7.5	2.1
.31	.11	-.37	-.30	.18	.13	.17	201.8	33.6
.15	.11	-.18	-.27	.16	.19	.19	209.3	31.5
1.0	.37	-.20	-.15	.23	.21	.25	41.6	12.4
	1.0	.05	-.10	.13	.31	.23	53.9	11.2
		1.0	.45	-.27	-.16	-.24	25.3	10.1
			1.0	-.09	-.09	-.09	17.1	8.2
				1.0	.63	.92	120.3	21.2
					1.0	.89	122.8	18.6
						1.0	243.2	35.9

X_{11}	X_{12}	X_{13}	X_{14}	Y_1	Y_2	Y_3	Mean	S.D.
.02	.07	-.18	-.16	.02	.07	.04	0.5	0.5
.01	.10	-.16	-.15	.16	.10	.14	0.8	0.5
-.11	-.04	-.19	-.17	-.18	.19	.20	0.3	0.6
-.10	-.07	-.15	-.11	.04	-.08	-.05	1.1	4.7
-.06	.12	-.07	-.01	.04	-.06	-.03	2.0	1.7
-.16	-.21	-.20	-.17	.06	-.06	-.01	2.9	5.6
.01	-.08	-.17	-.24	-.02	-.12	-.07	0.9	0.9
-.07	-.06	.15	.06	-.12	-.14	-.14	7.5	2.1
.31	.11	-.37	-.30	.18	.13	.17	201.8	33.6
.15	.11	-.18	-.27	.16	.19	.19	209.3	31.5
1.0	.37	-.20	-.15	.23	.21	.25	41.6	12.4
	1.0	.05	-.10	.13	.31	.23	53.9	11.2
		1.0	.45	-.27	-.16	-.24	25.3	10.1
			1.0	-.09	-.09	-.09	17.1	8.2
				1.0	.63	.92	120.3	21.2
					1.0	.89	122.8	18.6
						1.0	243.2	35.9

Table 45. Significant social correlates of marital adjustment not reported in previous sections

Variables (correlates)	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	Correlation coefficients for marital adjustment of		
			Husbands'	Wives'	Couples'
Length of engagement	6.2	6.3	.16***	.16***	.18***
Length of marriage	11.2	12.9	-.11*	-.03	-.08
Husbands' parents' marital happiness	3.8	1.0	.11*	.05	.09
Wives' parents' marital happiness	3.7	1.0	.11*	.20***	.17***
Husbands' church attendance	3.5	1.4	.31****	.27****	.32****
Wives' church attendance	3.6	1.4	.25****	.22***	.26****
Size of husbands' hometown	2.8	1.6	-.10*	-.10*	-.11*
Size of wives' hometown	2.8	1.6	-.09	-.11*	-.11*
Husbands' occupational prestige	74.7	9.3	.22***	.19***	.20***
Family income	4.0	1.9	.12*	.03	.09

*P < .05 **P < .01 ***P < .005 ****P < .001

APPENDIX E. FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS FOR MARITAL ADJUSTMENT SCORES OF HUSBANDS, WIVES, AND COUPLES

Table 46. Locke-Wallace Short Form Marital Adjustment Scale scores for husbands and wives

Score	Husbands N	Husbands %[a]	Wives N	Wives %[a]
19 or below	0	0.0	0	0.0
20-29	1	.4	0	0.0
30-39	0	0.0	1	.4
40-49	0	0.0	0	0.0
50-59	2	.8	1	.4
60-69	5	1.9	1	.4
70-79	6	2.3	2	1.2
80-89	8	3.0	9	3.4
90-99	19	7.2	12	4.6
100-109	23	8.7	25	9.5
110-119	43	16.3	47	17.8
120-129	61	23.2	62	23.6
130-139	49	18.6	53	20.2
140-149	40	15.2	41	15.6
150-158	8	3.0	10	3.8
Totals	265	100.6	265	100.9
Range	20-158		33-155	
$\bar{X}$	120.3		122.8	
S.D.	21.2		18.6	

[a]Percentage totals will not always equal 100 due to rounding.

Table 47. Composite marital adjustment scores for couples

Score	N	%[a]
70 and below	0	0.0
71-80	1	.4
81-90	0	0.0
91-100	0	0.0
101-110	0	0.0
111-120	0	0.0
121-130	0	0.0
131-140	0	0.0
141-150	4	1.5
151-160	4	1.5
161-170	3	1.1
171-180	6	2.3
181-190	6	2.3
191-200	12	4.6
201-210	6	2.3
211-220	17	6.4
221-230	14	5.2
231-240	29	11.0
241-250	39	14.8
251-260	38	14.4
261-270	24	9.1
271-280	27	10.2
281-290	23	8.7

Table 47. (Continued)

Score	N	%
291-300	10	3.8
301-310	1	.4
311 and above	1	.4
Totals	265	100.4
Range	76-313	
$\bar{X}$	243.2	
S.D.	35.9	

[a]Percentage totals will not always equal 100 due to rounding.

Table 48. Frequency distribution of spousal marital adjustment difference scores

Score	N	%[a]
0	11	4.2
1-5	65	24.7
6-10	60	22.8
11-15	50	19.0
16-20	24	9.1
21-25	18	6.8
26-30	14	5.2
31-35	11	4.2
36-40	4	1.5
41-45	3	1.1
46-50	1	.4
51-55	2	.8
56-60	1	.4
61-65	0	0.0
66-70	0	0.0
71-75	0	0.0
76 and above	1	.4
Totals	265	100.6
Range	0-76	
$\overline{X}$	13.0	
S.D.	11.6	

[a]Percentage totals will not always equal 100 due to rounding.

APPENDIX F. A METHODOLOGICAL NOTE ON COMPUTING THE COMPOSITE MARITAL ADJUSTMENT SCORE FOR COUPLES

It was noted in an earlier section of this dissertation that husband's and wife's marital adjustment scores do not correlate perfectly, therefore not reflecting unity and not legitimizing using only one spouse's responses as representative of a marriage. In the discussion chapter, it was pointed out that almost 40 percent of the variance in the marital adjustment of an individual spouse is explainable by his/her mate's marital adjustment score. This leaves a substantial amount of the variance unexplained and thus also raises serious questions about the legitimacy of using only one spouse's marital adjustment score as an indicant of the couple's marital adjustment. It also was reported in this dissertation that marital adjustment for husbands and wives is influenced by different factors. Therefore, it is evident that we need to develop a collective indicant of marital adjustment that will take into account both spouses' adjustment to the marriage. It is possible, of course, that the current measures of marital adjustment only tap an individual spouse's perceptions and do not reflect the dyadic functioning of the couple. Despite this limitation, it was thought useful to offer an exploratory test of the couple's marital adjustment in this research. In this appendix, a few of the strategies for developing such a collective measure that were considered and ruled out will be reviewed.

Since prior research has not used a couple's score for marital adjustment, we had no norms to guide us in selection of a scoring method. On the basis of consultations with several methodologists, the following assumptions seemed appropriate: 1) since no norms have been established, we should stay with a simple additive model and 2) since it is possible

to arrive at the same score by combinations of several different scores of husbands and wives when using an average score, it was felt that this would not represent a unique couple's score. Each of the following techniques was experimented with and ruled out either because the assumptions of a simple additive model would be violated or because the score obtained did not represent a unique adjustment score, different from either spouse's individual adjustment scores.

Since it was felt that the difference between spouses was an important element to be taken into account, the first consideration was for a means of obtaining a score that represented spousal differences. Several strategies for taking the difference in scores were tried: 1) by subtracting the lower score from the higher score, 2) by subtracting the husband's score from the wife's, 3) by subtracting the wife's score from the husband's, and 4) by taking the absolute difference between scores regardless of the sign of the difference.

Another consideration was to use the average score for each couple. This alone was ruled out for the reason articulated earlier that the score did not represent a unique score, but it was reasoned that a combination of the difference score plus the average score might be a viable indicant of the couple's marital adjustment. This method, however, proved algebraically infeasible since the formula:

$$\frac{\text{(Absolute spousal difference)} - \text{(Sum of spouses' total scores)}}{2}$$

always ended up with the score of the spouse with the lower marital adjustment. Parsons' social system model give some credence to taking the

lower score as an indicant of the over-all adjustment of the couple. Parsons argues that a system is only as strong as its weakest link and, therefore, that the weakest link represents the over-all adjustment of the system. This technique was considered, and preliminary data analysis revealed that this over-all score was not enough different from adjustment scores of individual spouses to provide another perspective of the marriage.

Other combinations of taking the absolute difference and the sum total of the spouses' adjustment scores proved equally unfruitful. Therefore, we were forced to drop the use of the difference score and use a simple summated score by adding the two spouses' adjustment scores together. It is recognized that this is a crude means of obtaining the over-all couple's adjustment score. Work needs to be done on refining the collective indicant. In research in which the author[10] is currently engaged attempts are being made to refine the couple's adjustment score. One fruitful strategy that this dissertation research suggests is to consider the adjustment areas of husbands and wives separately and to derive a combined score reflecting the couple's adjustment by using only those areas of adjustment that affect both spouses' ability to function within the marriage. (For example, it was reported in Chapter V that husband's commitment influenced the adjustment of the couple more than did wife's commitment.)

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[10]Persons interested in the continuing work on the development of a marital adjustment scale for couples may write the author at Denison University, Granville, Ohio 43023, for copies of subsequent papers.